CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

FEBRUARY, 1933

A Nation's Strength	*Florence E. Bamberger*	227
The Future of Teacher Training as Based on Social Needs	*Ruth Streitz*	230
Observations upon Beginning Arithmetic	*F. B. Knight*	234
Glimpses into Foreign Classrooms	*Nila Banton Smith*	241
The School Environment for the Four Year Child	*Jane Bernhardt* *Margaret Dawson*	248
The Activity Curriculum	*Bianca Esch*	253
Building Blocks as a Third Grade Activity	*O. E. Heaton*	256
Toy Excursion Through the Delaware Water Gap	*Julia C. Dulles*	258
National Council of Childhood Education—Department of Superintendence		267
News from Headquarters	*Mary E. Leeper*	268
Book Reviews	*Alice Temple*	269
Among the Magazines	*Ella Ruth Boyce*	272
Research Abstracts	*Elizabeth Moore Manwell*	275

Published Monthly, October to June, by the

ASSOCIATION FOR CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

Rowna Hansen, *Editor*

Subscription price is $2.00 a year to members of the Association for Childhood Education, to members of the National Association for Nursery Education, and to students in training schools; $2.50 to others. Canadian subscriptions at regular price—no additional postage. Foreign subscribers add 50 cents for postage. Single copy 30 cents.

Manuscripts should be sent to the editor, 1201 Sixteenth St., Washington, D. C. Inquiries regarding advertising rates, or payment for subscriptions and renewals should be sent to the executive secretary, at 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington, D. C.

Entered as second class matter at the post office at Washington, D. C., under the act of March 3, 1879. Additional entry at Menasha, Wisconsin.

Copyright, 1932, Association for Childhood Education.

Statue by Paul Manship *Courtesy of The Art Digest*

Abraham Lincoln, the Hoosier Youth

CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

For the Advancement of Nursery—Kindergarten—Primary Education

Vol. IX FEBRUARY, 1933 No. 5

A Nation's Strength

FLORENCE E. BAMBERGER
Professor of Education, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland

Not gold, but only men can make
A people great and strong,
Men, who for truth and honor's sake,
Stand fast and suffer long.
RALPH WALDO EMERSON

THIS has always been the chief goal and ideal of American education. The first expression of it dates back to 1647 when the New England Fathers in order "to cheat ye old deluder Satan" established schools for its youth.

The type of school and schooling from that early period up to 1860 was planned to meet a nation predominantly of farmers. The great bulk of the population, eighty-four per cent, was agrarian, and the little red school house with its 3-R's curriculum, its authoritative discipline, and its method of unthinking memorization, undoubtedly served the needs of boys and girls who were receiving a world of experiences of things and people from the services required of them both on the farm and in the households.

In 1890 the urban trend of population was well underway and at present is our predominant form of life, although decentralization of industry as predicted some time ago by Henry Ford appears to be on the horizon of our industrial civilization. With this industrialization and urbanization of life, education took on certain new aspects; and since systems of education inevitably reflect the history, culture, and characteristics of a country, it may be useful to investigate some of the dominant ideals of the modern trends in the education in the United States.

Perhaps the most striking feature of American education at present, certainly the one that is most persistently brought to the attention of the tax payer of the present time is the amount of money that is spent upon education.

Back of the expenditure, which is certainly large, however, lies a basic American ideal concerning education. That ideal is the faith and belief that only in education can national progress be secured and individual well-being be promoted. That this ideal influences educational thought and practices can readily be shown.

The fact that the development of national resources and social welfare can only be advanced by the appropriate training of the individual is evidenced by the fact that American education is a continuous process from kindergarten through high school.

Our administrative policies even in the elementary grades provide opportunity classes for the "submerged tenth," classes for the defective, for the gifted, for the emotionally unstable, for the normal; in order that each, as far as is possible, may continue his schooling as far as his abilities warrant, so that each contributes, as far as is possible, his share to the nation's good life. The perfectibility of human nature, whether a mistaken philosophic concept or not, has always been a basic principle, and to develop human nature for the good of the State, an abiding American ideal.

The changes introduced in our secondary schools are a practical application of this ideal. The demands that democracy makes of its citizenry requires intelligent, well trained minds, cognizant of and interested in the existing forms of social organizations. To reach this goal the high school of today attempts both in its curricular and extra-curricular activities to have its adolescence not only intelligent concerning the duties of adult citizenship, but actually by participation in the group school life habitually perform many acts of responsibility and decision, such as serving as treasurer, being chairman and presiding over meetings, which later on as adult citizens they may be called upon to perform.

The additional task of the secondary school is to discover unique abilities and talents of its pupils and to give them instruction in all those branches which will enable them to become economically self-sustaining.

Lastly, through glee clubs, art clubs, camera clubs, dramatic clubs, and the like, the school cultivates those avocational interests which will fill leisure hours with worthwhile activities.

This first ideal, then, which aims to develop ideals and habits of social and civic well-being makes secondary schools a necessary part of a school system and brings additional problems. This faith in education rests on the widespread recognition that national progress as well as individual well-being are best promoted through education. In America, as perhaps in no other country in the world, this forces a dual function upon the secondary schools. For some of its youth, the high school is terminal—no more educational opportunities will this group require, obviously all students will not seek an education beyond the secondary school.

On the other hand the secondary school for some pupils will only be preparatory for going on to colleges and universities or professional training. In our belief in democratic procedures and in our design, rightfully, not to rear barriers of class distinction, all our boys and girls go to one high school and therefore there must be several curricula available; one, the academic to prepare those who expect to go to institutions of higher learning; two, shop and technical, and business, to make provisions for the needs of the others not going on to college.

In summarizing this far, then, education must be universal in order to promote national progress.

A second American ideal is that education must assist and stimulate each individual to go as far as his ability permits from the kindergarten to the end of the university. Educational psychology has already begun to emphasize the fact of individual differences. The scientific data which shows that individuals differ in abilities, capacity, and tastes, makes for differentiated courses of study, for various standards of accomplishments, for definite classifications of pupils. No longer can pupils be dismissed as individuals with no brains, but provisions of such variety of choice among the present courses need to be introduced as will be of profit to each individual pupil. In America, then, schooling from kindergarten through to high school is thought of as a basic education training, not for a particular gifted class.

A third ideal which is important to note in America is that education must aim not merely to develop the intellect, to give culture, but must provide for the development and cultivation of character and personality. In other words, the actual living of the boys and girls on the playground, in

the library, in the clubs, in the cafeteria is of as much concern as is the learning of the subject matter presented; in order to prepare for actual participation in our group life in which high ideals of courage, loyalty, integrity, and responsibility are required and these traits are best fostered by providing daily opportunities to apply these characteristics in the actual affairs of school life. It is the hope of education that the finest type of adult will eventually emerge from this training and living.

Attempts have been made at various times by various authorities to give a positive description of the mature adult which is the American hope for its educational product.

The Roman ideal was "a sound mind in a sound body"; St. Paul's text "When I was a child I thought as a child, I spoke as a child; but when I became a man, I put away childish things."

Thorndike's ideal—is an individual having higher and better wants, spiritual, mental, and physical, and being better prepared through education to secure these wants.

Probably Kipling's poem "If" gives all the characteristics of the grown man which America's ideal of education seeks to foster:

"IF"

If you can keep your head when all about you
  Are losing theirs and blaming it on you,
If you can trust yourself when all men doubt you,
  But make allowance for their doubting too,
If you can wait and not be tired of waiting,
  Or being lied about, don't deal in lies,
Or being hated, don't give way to hating,
  And yet don't look too good, nor talk too wise—
If you can fill the unforgiving minute
  With sixty seconds worth of distance run,
Yours is the earth, and everything that's in it,
  And what is more—You'll be a Man, my Son.

Miss Otis* has added a few special characteristics to make a similar picture for the ideal girl in her:

An "IF" for Girls

If you can dress to make yourself attractive,
  Yet not make puffs and curls your chief delight,
If you can swim and row, be strong and active,
  But of the gentler graces lose not sight;
If you can dance without a crave for dancing,
  Play without giving play too strong a hold,
Enjoy the love of friends without romancing,
  Care for the weak, the friendless, and the old;
If you can master French and Greek and Latin,
  And not acquire a priggish mien;
If you can feel the touch of silk and satin
  Without despising calico and jean;
If you can ply a saw and hammer
  Can do a man's work when the need occurs
Can sing, when asked, without excuse or stammer
  Can rise above unfriendly snubs and slurs;
If you can make good bread as well as fudges,
  Can sew with skill and have an eye for dust;
If you can be a friend and hold no grudges;
  A girl whom all will love because they must;
If some time you should meet and love another,
  And make a home with love and peace enshrined,
And you its soul—a loyal wife and mother—
  You'll work out pretty nearly, to my mind,
The plan that's been developed through the ages.
  And win the best that life can have in store;
You'll be a model for the Sages—
A woman whom the world will bow before.

* In Lyman & Hills' *Literature and Living*, p. 598, Book I.

Ruskin felt so strongly about what should be given to a child to read, his final object, as he declared, being to teach every child "What to admire, what to hope for, and what to love"; which object could be obtained, he believed by never, so far as he could help it, letting a child read what is not worth reading or see what is not worth seeing. D.A.L.

The Future of Teacher Training as Based on Social Needs

RUTH STREITZ
Professor of Education, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio

THE increasing demand for schools organized on the "activity" or "progressive" basis has created a number of problems not generally recognized by the average teacher training institution. Many institutions are continuing their program of teacher training which they have always advocated regardless of the changes that have taken place in our social and economic life. Some have injected a few courses intended to appease the progressives and not antagonize the conservatives. Others have given a kind of lip service to the newer ideas while maintaining their traditional practices, and by this "carrying of water" on both shoulders interfere with the proper functioning of either point of view. There are many well intentioned groups who, not understanding the philosophy which underlies the newer education, demand that activities replace subjects and that certain units of work be prescribed for all students. These enthusiastic friends are our worst enemies because they defeat the purposes they intend to serve. There is, however, a small group of sincere thinkers who recognize the fact that there is growing dissatisfaction with the educational practices which exist, and are trying to analyze the causes which contribute, so that educational procedures which are commensurate with our present civilization may be advocated and understood.

Theorists have long insisted that education should be based upon a study of society and the political and economic forces which affect our civilization. While granting the importance of this point of view and recognizing in it the basis for a reconstructed program, teacher training institutions have been loath to discard their outworn practices and procedures. So long have people lived in the past that the tendency is to overemphasize the importance of the contributions of the past.

The demand of our time is for young people who can think critically, question intelligently, reason adequately, and share sympathetically in understanding the civilization in which we live at present. To meet these demands implies a type of education that possesses a more liberalizing social outlook, a deepening consciousness of our economic problems and a better understanding of our political responsibilities. If youth is to receive such an education it is imperative that the teacher who is to guide him be given such educational experiences as will truly fit her for her challenging opportunity. Let us consider then the problems which teacher training institutions must face if their work is basic to the great task of social reconstruction.

First, there must be the education of the individual. In the desire to subscribe to the democratic ideal and provide an education for everyone, educators have all but lost sight of the individual and the contribution which he is capable of making to society. The result has been a kind of mass production not unlike conditions found in industry. Referring to the intellectual life of our civilization Professor Dewey has said that the absence of individualism is our marked deficiency, and that "it was reserved for our own day to combine under the name of individualism, laudation of selfish energy in industrial accomplishment with insistence upon uniformity and conformity in mind."

Classes have become so standardized that students have been able to pass examinations and receive degrees without any appreciable difference in their behavior or in their thinking. The continued development of the student mind already docile

has resulted in a mechanical type of individual who unfortunately is too often found in the teaching profession.

The sectioning of large classes has been thought to care for groups of varying mental abilities and yet even within these groups one finds the greatest of variation. Individuals must be studied for their distinctive and unique qualities and encouraged in the belief that each is capable of making a contribution of worth to the group as a whole. This also implies a recognition of the intrinsic qualities which each individual possesses, and demands that such opportunities be provided as will permit the functioning of these differing abilities. The chief concern of teacher training institutions should be the release of the distinctive aptitudes which each student possesses, and the encouragement of honest inquiry which is in itself distinctive and individualized.

Second, there must be ample opportunity for students to think constructively. Thinking as an activity is not often indulged in for its own sake. Too long have students been expected to remember what the book contained rather than coming to grips with some of the educational problems of the day. With such training it is not surprising that teachers often discount their own ideas and readily accept those of others who hold positions of "authority."

Thinking requires materials with which to think and is just as essential to growth and development as is food which nourishes the body. To some thinking is something which goes on in the head of the thinker. To others "thinking is experimenting" or "learning through experience." If the latter point of view is accepted training schools and colleges will need to reorganize their work to provide for far richer and more varied experiences than was considered necessary in the past.

Subscribing to the old adage "learning by doing" or "learning by means of activities" students will participate effectively in the affairs of the school, realizing the importance of their contribution and the necessity for clear and tested thought. No longer will the instructor require little tasks to be performed such as the making of perfunctory reports, reading a certain number of pages, and writing papers on assigned topics, and the like. The topics for discussion will be of such vital importance to the students that they will be impelled to participate and endeavor to make a contribution. "Our schools should truly become laboratories of knowledge-making, not mills fitted out with information-hoppers."

Third, there must be creative participation in a variety of activities. The word creative is too often thought to apply only to the fields of art, music, poetry and rhythm. Valuable as these are there is a place for creative activity in the realm of thought which should be considered in the preparation of teachers. Instead of the mechanical routine which so often characterizes the period of training, students should be made aware of the importance of their own participation in making novel adjustments. In place of imitating good teachers and trying to teach as they do the period of training should be devoted to helping the student teacher attack the daily problems of an improved class room by using all of the knowledge she has gained and the creative imagination she possesses on the activities to be carried on.

Creativeness is not a thing achieved only rarely by the superior few. Creativeness or originality is an *individual* way of approaching any of the problems of life. Instead of trying to fit all students into the same mold intended to enable them to come out as teachers, there should be very definite encouragement in the development of each one's potential powers. In this way there is continued recognition of the creative aspects instead of the adaptive aspects which all students somehow seem to possess.

The modern educator does not think that the business of living is mere mechanical routine but a creative art because by the very nature of experience itself which is ongoing there is need for novel adjustment. Such adjustments are considered creative

in that they challenge the individual. Furthermore, the securing of first hand experiences instead of securing information about the experience from others is another element of creativeness. Therefore, all school activities should be planned in such a way as to provide for the maximum of individual thought and purpose. Such a plan will undoubtedly attract students of unusual ability, students possessed of good minds and the desire for freedom in which to work.

Fourth, there must be cooperative social experiences to develop social powers. While emphasizing the importance of the individual it is recognized that this is but one aspect of the problem—there must be consideration of the individual with reference to society or the social group. The concept of socialization is familiar to all but in actual practice is understood only by a few. In school situations the whole process of study should become cooperative with the provision for the practice of mutual respect, helpfulness and enjoyment in common undertakings. This experience with socially shared values would in turn bring about a feeling of "togetherness" which is more essential today than in any period of our civilization. Too long have schools emphasized the differences of peoples rather than stressing their similarities. Too often the spectacular and bizarre receive such attention as to distort the picture one would otherwise receive of an interesting people. This is especially true where "units of work" are advocated and the teacher in training is engaged in preparing work for an Indian unit, or a unit of Japanese life or Life in Holland. How many people proceed on the false assumption that interest is developed only with something new. It is much sounder psychology to find the new in the old or familiar experience and to proceed from that point into the realm of the undiscovered.

To develop social powers one must participate in social experiences. The training schools and colleges have a great responsibility and a great opportunity to provide seminars, open forums, and free discussions, so that better understanding is developed not only with reference to the varying social groups in our own country, but in the establishment of international understanding. Discussion of such controversial problems as the discontented elements in our population, the victory of one class over another, the unfairness of distribution which permits of starvation while there is an abundance of food without a market, and countless other social and economic problems which the present age has produced should challenge all students who hope to guide the youth of this country into more intelligent participation in world affairs.

Fifth, there must be understanding of our changing culture and civilization. With overemphasis upon the memorization of isolated facts and the development of skills the majority of prospective teachers have no conception of the cultural significance of their profession. It is not uncommon to find teachers whose reading interests are on the same level with those of their pupils in elementary or high school. Extensive and thoughtful reading in the fields of literature, art, music, history, science, in fact in all the branches of knowledge will give to the teacher in training and later to the group in service a grasp of the cultural aspects of our civilization which was not possible when training consisted of meager knowledge and abundance of techniques and devices.

In addition to securing information through wide reading, students should be made aware of the fact that culture does not always reside in the past, but may exist in the present and certainly in the future. Such a point of view together with the recognition of the fact that civilization is changing rapidly gives to the young student something yet to achieve and perhaps to create.

It would be almost impossible to think of our present civilization so often characterized as the "machine age" and the "scientific age" without recognizing the fact that development of culture must be in relation to this period. If education is to

be of most worth, it should be able not only to harmonize the work of science with that of the individual, but bring science to the aid of the individual in order that "culture for the first time in human history be an individual achievement and not a class possession." Students must be acquainted further with the importance of life today for as Dewey has said: "To bring to the consciousness of the coming generation something of the potential significance of the life of today, to transmute it from outward fact into intelligent perception, is the first step in the creation of a culture."

Many people believe that this is a fact accomplished, and that the present age is fast producing a culture of its own which is commensurate with the life of today. James Truslow Adams in commenting upon America's contribution to civilization refers to this unique and distinctive gift which has been given to mankind, namely the *American Dream*, "that dream of a land in which life should be better and richer and fuller for every man, with opportunity for each according to his ability or achievement." How, then, shall teachers realize this dream? First, by becoming increasingly more scholarly; second, by the acquisition of greater courage in the attack upon problems; third, by the utilization of knowledge accompanied by inspired imagination in solving problems or in seeing the worthwhileness of certain activities; and fourth, by the development of greater sympathy, tolerance and good will.

The training of teachers to meet a changing world is not the easy task it was a generation ago when the educational program of the prospective teacher was based upon the assumption that society remained static and that one could prepare now for activities to be used in later life. Today institutions for the training of teachers must begin very definite reorganization, keeping ever in mind that our social and economic problems are of utmost importance and must therefore receive consideration. Use must be made of all branches of knowledge and cooperative effort secured from community as well as school agencies. When all groups work together and consider the education of boys and girls more important than subject matter divisions we shall approach a place in teacher training truly worthy of the profession.

White and Gray

Dawn turned on her purple pillow
And late, late came the winter day,
Snow was curved to the boughs of the willow,
The sunless world was white and gray.

At noon we heard a blue-jay scolding,
At five the last thin light was lost
From snow-banked windows faintly holding
The feathery filigree of frost.

—SARA TEASDALE, in "Dark of the Moon."

Observations upon Beginning Arithmetic

F. B. KNIGHT
Professor of Education, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa

RIGID limitations of space require the recording of important considerations in such terse and unqualified a fashion as to render the writer open to the charge of arbitrariness. All who have really thought about the host of vexatious, though fascinating problems of the child's first experiences with numbers, are fully aware that the final words have not been spoken; that in all probability, fundamental improvements both in curriculum and in methodology await more study of the problems involved, and perhaps more courage and imagination in meeting them; that many teaching practices, now most securely entrenched through long usage and the sanctions of precedent are really rather inferior, and that some of the practices which are now basking smugly in the sunlight of popular approval are in reality, not so important as they seem, if, indeed, they are not actually futile or vicious. However, the practical exigencies of teaching school this year and next, require that we do what seems best now, keeping all the while the hope that when better ways appear, we shall not be too brittle and inflexible to recognize them. Every statement in this paper might well be changed to a question without seriously misrepresenting the attitude of the writer—and, no doubt, the attitude of most thoughtful readers.

Oftentimes an advance results from a conscious study of the absolute opposite of the policy or practice in favor at the time. In arithmetic present practice is to taboo counting. It is emphasized that counting on the fingers should be resisted by teachers from the very first. It is so universal and so perverse that it might be considered the original sin for which all children must be redeemed. Consider counting them as an "opposite." Permit, even advise counting during first learning. Counting makes use of a very remarkable computing machine. Few inventions outdistance the possibilities of the human hand. It is the easiest and most efficient machine for very young minds. Children, under the Law of Laziness, will not count when the need for it no longer exists. The proposed alternatives to counting on the fingers as a way out of temporary difficulty, carry their own handicaps. These handicaps have never been assaulted as have the admitted handicaps of counting. Since evidence of this kind is lacking, it seems reasonable that in a debate on the relative merits of counting versus any other more reputable method, the victory would have to go to the speaker more generously endowed with rhetorical skill rather than to the one holding out the greater number of truths. The case against counting is far more a matter of faith and emotion than of demonstrated fact.

Consider another practice (or faith) and its opposite. This is concerned with seeing or not seeing that number facts are really so. After a child has been shown the meaning of a relatively few addition facts, such as 2+2, 4+4 and several other "easy" ones, he can learn the rest mostly, if not wholly, as a matter of memory. The direct opposite is found in the following procedures:

a. Teach all facts stripped of meaning and illustration, i.e., identify the bond and give oral and written drill upon it.
b. Give meaning to all the number facts during their committal to memory.
c. Give no more time to meaning than at present, but instead of illustrating the earlier facts which the child is more apt to know anyway, shift to the mere identification of the easier combinations, giving meaning and illustration to the harder ones.
d. Instead of concentrating meaning and illustration on the first ones or on the last ones, scatter illustration all through the series.

Any one of these "opposites" to prevailing practice found in the classroom, the text the curriculum and writing about teaching seem as sensible as the well-entrenched conventions of the time. They are worthy of serious consideration.

Many other common practices and faiths will occur to the reader. When these are stated and their opposites thrown into relief, one can hardly fail to be impressed with the insecurity of the foundations on which our present teaching methods in beginning arithmetic are based. If the reader shares with the writer the impression of insecurity, he will be quite willing to overlook the apparent arbitrariness of this paper. In fact, he may be inclined to place more and more confidence in some of the "opposites" which the following discussion will attempt to suggest.

Two observations upon beginning arithmetic may serve to clarify our thinking:

(1) Present practice is based on none too secure foundations.
(2) It is useful to match a consideration of any fiat about arithmetic in grades one and two with an open-minded consideration of the opposite of that fiat.

The Curriculum Content

The curriculum for arithmetic in grades one and two should be clean-cut, well-organized, carefully orientated to the work of grade three and to the powers, interests and informations which the child brings to the work. The curriculum should be predetermined. The order in which each unit of it appears, the main warp and woof of illustration, the amounts, types and administration of drill or "experience" exercises—all should be predetermined. The whole structure of performance should be a living out of the plan of an educational architect, analogous to the scientific work of the engineer and the competent performance of the foreman and his group in the construction of the schoolhouse which shall be safe to live in. The analogy breaks down, of course, when we are thinking of a small one-room country schoolhouse. In building that house, the problems of stresses and strains of steel girders, the technical intricacies of the heating plant, ingenious ways of making at least half the building something else besides corridors, figure not at all. But the learning of arithmetic within that small school involves the same pedagogical structures, the same scientific care, the same predetermination as are involved in the curriculum of the large school. The details of content need not now concern us. The pith of the observation is that the curriculum and its internal organization should be exactly described and predetermined.

The "opposite" to a predetermined curriculum is admittedly attractive. Think of the slavery involved in laying out everything beforehand, the forcing of tender children into predetermined grooves laid down by absentee experts, the miserable failure of such planning to capitalize the felt needs, the spontaneous sparkle of the children themselves, the prodigal waste involved in throwing away the creative ingenuity of the classroom teacher who knows his pupils and is right there "on the spot." Who dares to predict, let alone prescribe in August what ought to be done in November?

The issue of predetermination of the curriculum always arouses conflict; we hasten to support one side or the other, being ever ready with rebuttals and counter-rebuttals. It is just possible that the technique of compromise so valuable in other fields will be found useful here. At any rate, we badly need a careful exposition of what is involved in overdoing predetermination, and, conversely, what is involved in overdoing freedom in curriculum building. What are the possibilities of a predetermined curriculum, so set up that the driving power of felt needs, the nourishment of genuine interests of the moment and the unquestioned endowments for creative work on the part of the teacher may be utilized to the fullest extent? In essence, the writer prefers to defend the idea of predetermination in curriculum building rather than its opposite.

Form and Spirit

The arithmetic curriculum is never merely the listing of what is to be taught. Of

course, it is partly that, as, the 100 addition facts, the 100 subtraction facts, a list of arithmetical phrases, particular skills and so on. In addition to viewing the curriculum in the most usual way, as a report of content, we find it expedient to view it as a picture, a history, an account of intellectual and emotional experience which the child should himself, as a person, live through.

Here the writer must be tentative and even questioning. Evidence now exists which presumes, but does not absolutely prove that certain experiences can be obtained—also, that there is a reasonable amount of scientific assurance that they really are being obtained. Certain questions suggest themselves. For example, *what kinds of quantitative thinking can be credited to the workings of a given curriculum?* Note that the question is not: what kinds of quantitative thinking does the curriculum writer think well of, or ask for, or claim to facilitate? But rather: what kinds of quantitative thinking have the children actually performed? How often have they thought in quantitative terms; with what chance of permanent habitual sets; in competition with, or in association with, what types of thinking, either unexpected, unrecognized or unworthy? Again: *what types of intellectual habits is the methodology of the curriculum favoring?* What habits is it neglecting? In its hurry to have the interests of arithmetic served, what is it doing to the basic constitution of the child's mind? Let us examine the advice of the following definite, clean-cut and eminently successful course of study.

This course of study states, in effect, that if the child does not at the moment know that 17 belongs with 9+8 he should be told. He should be trained to ask for information when in need of it. He should not blunder around to discover the 17 for himself, because it is well known that he will fall into one of several pitfalls, such as, getting the wrong number and hence piling up practice in error, or falling back on finger counting, or inventing some reckoning system (often of surprising ingenuity) by which the fact that 9+8 belongs with 17 can be deduced.

Now, it is probable that the advice given by this course of study helps to get the arithmetic job done quickly and well. Should we, however, be comfortable about a fundamental pedagogy, which, in essence, is "teacher-telling and pupil asking?" Are we not ambitious for the arithmetic curriculum to do the right things for the child as a learner and thinker, as well as doing right by arithmetic? This dictum teaches the child to be dependent on another person. It does very little for self-reliance; it denies that a child should figure things out for himself, because one such way of figuring happens to be in disgrace. It openly approves of a type of intellectual experience which, when the larger, deeper purposes of education are held in mind, can be challenged. The question: What types of intellectual experiences does the curriculum provide and what types does it fail to provide? is one which is deserving of more consideration than is often accorded to it.

Another query is: *what does any given curriculum do and fail to do by way of providing a series of deep, non-verbal, often unconscious emotional experiences?* Such experiences lie next to the very heart of personality and character. How much success, how much failure is involved in a given curriculum for Johnny Jones at ten o'clock on a Tuesday morning? These inner failures and successes cannot be read as can the thermometer on the wall, but their presence is nevertheless real and vital. How much self-realization is inherent in any particular curriculum set-up? Just where, why, in what quantity and with what frequency and genuineness is the joy of accomplishment destined to bless the child, because this curriculum is what it is? What sense of bafflement, of not quite "clicking" is buried in it? What satisfactions to curiosity, so easily frustrated, are forthcoming? What does this curriculum do to unify school knowledge with the child's total knowledge so that it operates anywhere—becomes really a part of the child?

The form and spirit of the arithmetic curriculum must be squared with what it does for the whole child. It is sure to do something: the problem is one of making it do

the right things and refraining from doing the wrong things, however hidden they may be. The reader, no doubt, will find it easy to recall many a pupil whose inner self has been left either cold or actually damaged, by a faulty curriculum, even if this curriculum obtained results, so far as arithmetic is concerned. What does it profit a child to learn the 100 addition facts, if the cost is the forming of wrong intellectual habits? If the work involves too much stress, strain, struggle and emotional wear and tear?

To summarize our observations on the curriculum of first and second grade arithmetic:

(a) It should be predetermined, organized definitely and in great detail. Upon such deep soil the fruits of the creative genius of the teacher, the energy-releasing drives of the child's felt needs can grow in hardy, healthy fashion.

(b) The curriculum in its eagerness to serve arithmetic must not be dilatory in serving the needs of the child as a person. Quantitative habits of thinking, the right types of intellectual and emotional experiences must be guaranteed in exactly the same sense that the knowledge that $2+2=4$ is guaranteed.

Theory of Learning

The writer holds that it is self-evident that no practice of teaching is any better than the theory upon which it is based. Just what theory of learning is being used in first and second grade arithmetic? Is a better theory available? Are we sufficiently ingenious to work out in practice a more powerful theory of learning than that which permeates present methods?

Any teacher, supervisor, curriculum maker or textbook writer will find the following exercise profitable and stimulating. First, accept or reject the assertion that the human mind operates according to law: that it learns in certain ways and not in others; that the child as a human being learns as human beings learn, but, being a child, certain elements in the total pattern of human learning will be more important for him in his present immaturity than when he is an older and tougher learner. Further, arithmetic as a content requires certain adaptations of the learning process that are not as useful in other subjects. You will agree that it is quite possible to assign credit for success to one dynamic of learning, when, as a matter of fact, some other unrecognized dynamic was really producing the effects. Second, carefully list the assumptions concerning human learning upon which the present practice of teaching first and second grade arithmetic is based. Third, assign approximate values to these assumptions in order of their importance. Fourth, critically and without bias, appraise the success, the ingenuity, the steadiness, with which these assumptions are actually worked out in practice, in the last of the school year as well as at the beginning, in the last of the textbook as well as at the first, with large classes and with small, and so on. Fifth, over against this listing of present assumptions concerning learning in arithmetic, review the present available knowledge in the field of the psychology of learning. Advances have been made in this direction during the last few years which are quite the equal of advances in automotive engineering, radio engineering, and the science of dietetics. Sixth, with information concerning all the facts involved in human learning held in mind, list the assumptions upon which arithmetic learning might be based if we were beginning all over again—if, that is, we were not at the mercy of what we ourselves learned about school teaching fifteen years ago, and if our skins were not so thin that the pin pricks of custom and convention and established ways of doing things were not always irritating us, and making us afraid to venture anything new. Seventh, compare the two lists of assumptions under the second and sixth direction above for identical elements. Now study them for conflicts and disagreements. From such a study numerous possibilities of better theory and, hence, better practice in the field of first and second grade arithmetic cannot fail to be suggested. Certain aspects of teaching which now seem sure will become less and less sure: aspects

which have been slighted will seem to be worthy of more attention, and finally, an eagerness to be up and doing relative to the teaching of primary arithmetic will result.

Observations

The theory of learning, and hence the practice of teaching, now dominating the teaching of first and second grade arithmetic is, on the whole, based on 1890 knowledge and opinion. Nineteen thirty-two knowledge and opinion is the same substantially as 1890 knowledge in many ways. It is not the same so far as several vital issues are concerned. The fundamental assumptions basic to our present teaching of first and second grade arithmetic badly need sympathetic but firm and careful overhauling. Reconstruction is clearly called for. Paralleling the recognized need for remedial work on the part of pupils is the remedial work needed on our own methods.

Possible Improvements

There follows a list of ten suggestions which, in the opinion of the writer, vary greatly in importance. They are not equally securely based on evidence and the reader may find many of them objectionable; in which case they may be considered "opposites," and as such, meditated upon.

Suggestion 1

There is a need for greater definiteness as to just what children should do during their learning. It is quite possible that several ways of doing the same thing are of equal merit, but the probabilities are against this somewhat lazy point of view. For example, should the emphasis of learning be "seven minus four equals three," or "the difference of seven and four is three," or four plus what equals seven?" That is, should the essential idea of first work in subtraction favor the "take-away" idea, the "difference" idea, or the "additive" idea. Or, since subtraction is a common technique for answering three questions about numbers and their relations, should full knowledge be taught, all three ideas being experienced from the first until they have become so familiar to the child that he is as unconscious of them as he is of walking?

Suggestion 2

A sense of truth and reasonableness should permeate all learning in the first and second grade arithmetic curriculum. This is not done at present. There is a greater feeling of truth and sense of reasonableness about "two plus two equals four" than there is about "nine plus nine equals eighteen." The average child slides downhill so far as the sense of truth or reality is concerned as he proceeds from the easy facts to the harder ones. Most children really see that two plus three equals five, and this intellectual experience is of unquestioned value: few children really see that seven plus six equals thirteen, and this absence of reality is a distinct liability. It throws important bodies of useful information into the field of meaningless memory which is one of the weakest structures of the human mind.

Suggestion 3

Improvement is called for in the sense that arithmetic really happens up and down the street as well as when we are all ready for a drill period in the classroom. As a child sees color in the fall leaves or friendliness in the faces of his playmates, living in a world of color and friends and the qualities of things, he should also live in a world interpreted and understood by quantitative thinking, even from the first grade. We are weak at present in causing this sense of quantitative reality to become a thoroughly integrated part of the youngster's personality. This process of inducing quantitative thinking is relatively difficult but many of our techniques almost go out of their way to obstruct it, while the techniques which facilitate it are real and perfectly possible.

Suggestion 4

Drill work should be humanized and vitalized until it is transformed into experience within the child. Much of drill work created by writers poverty-stricken in imagination and ingenuity give the child exercises which get little nearer to his inner self than his finger movements as he wields the pencil. Quantity is but one phase of drill. Distribution of practice so that the harder combinations receive at least their full share of attention seems simple enough now, though it was a real contribution but a few years ago. But these two specifications of drill work will not raise performance above the animal

level. Other characteristics are necessary to change drill to psychologically genuine experience. It is this higher level of experience that is the dynamic of learning which, in spite of sheer unrelieved drill has sometimes, burst upon the youngster. Fewer aspects of teaching first and second grade arithmetic will yield advantageous results in larger amounts, with greater tolerability to the learner and of better quality than will the skillful transformation of sheer drill to experience on the higher cortical levels.

Suggestion 5

We must emancipate the learning of arithmetic from any particular setting. We have long known that if the child does all his drill work with pencil on yellow paper his performance will sag a bit if he works with ink on white paper. His learning has not been freed from a particular setting. Far more important, we know, is that in solving little problems the child will not do nearly as well when working by himself as when part of the setting is the presence of a solicitous teacher injecting questions, steering him with voice inflections, and manipulations of the eyebrows. The youngster's problem-solving activities have not been freed from the teacher setting. Many a child can do addition pretty well when the top of the page carries an addition title and when all the examples are addition, but let him respond to mixed drill which more closely parallels the facts of the real world and he is at least temporarily confused. He has not been freed from the arbitrary and artificial set-up of conventional ways of assigning work.

Suggestion 6

We must increase the permanence of first learning. Here proven techniques for maintaining skills are available and present knowledge should be put to use.

Suggestion 7

The verbal or vocabulary aspect of first and second grade arithmetic needs vigorous attention. This, of course, is obvious to all who are not so young in teaching as to be ignorant or so old that it is too late for them to get new points of view.

Suggestion 8

Something must be done to make children more self-reliant in the face of difficulty, especially when that difficulty is the forgetting of something that presumably has been learned. For example, if three weeks ago the child was supposed to have learned that seven plus eight equals fifteen, and now, in a bit of maintenance drill, the fifteen doesn't pop into mind, he faces a difficulty. At present he gets himself out of that difficulty in devious, uncertain ways, many of which are discreditable, or he is told to ask the teacher. This guidance is certainly better than no guidance at all, and, from the standpoint of arithmetic only, is satisfactory; but it is not a technique that teaches the child self-reliance in the face of difficulty. It is futile to say that the second-grade child is too young to begin to learn lessons in self-reliance. If the content to be mastered cannot be taught at a given age in such a way that self-reliance in the face of difficulty can also be taught, then the teaching of that content should be postponed. Is not the teaching of a content at the price of also teaching dependence in the face of difficulty similar to taking one step forward and slipping back two? No content should be taught at the expense of bad intellectual habits.

Suggestion 9

The fundamental pedagogy of first learning now common in first and second-grade arithmetic is open to serious criticism. It is too passive. The child is told the answers, with the possible exception of the first few addition and subtraction facts which he often knows before he comes to school. Passivity in learning must give way to activity. The fundamental pedagogy in teaching the 100 addition and the 100 subtraction facts should be setting the stage for an experience of discovery and of verification instead of accepting information as a divine dispensation. This may not be important for mere attainment in arithmetic though powerful experimental data support the statement that the pedagogy of "authority," i.e. telling the child is no more effective than the pedagogy of discovery and verification by the child of all new facts. The point is that the pedagogy of discovery serves the narrow purpose of arithmetic as well as does the pedagogy of teacher or textbook telling. Then, in excess, it gives early and continued experience in self-reliant learning. Such experience serves the deeper purposes of education to a degree that any type of teacher-dependent pedagogy is powerless to do.

The essential constitution of the mind cannot (except in rare instances) shake off the intellectual habits formed early in life. Our present methods of teaching arithmetic in grades one and two facilitate, even guarantee, dependence. We spoon-feed the youngster and wonder why he becomes a chronic spoon-feeder. In the second grade the child should be weaned from teacher nursing and made to learn for himself. This can be done without loss to arithmetic. It *must* be done if we want intellectually self-reliant junior high school pupils, or intellectually self-supporting graduate students, and self-directing adults.

This paper calls for a more competent theory underlying the learning of second-grade arithmetic—this for the sake of the child's mental habits. Present pedagogy, which in essence is learning by dependence on others, should give way to a new pedagogy which in a sense is learning by discovery and verification to the complete satisfaction of the self.

Suggestion 10

The emotional tonus of the arithmetic period must be improved. Due to sketchy curricula, inadequate first learning, faulty maintenance programs and lack of good-natured ingenuity, first and second-grade arithmetic is too often a struggle, a strain and an emotionally negative enterprise. This should not and need not be so.

Summary

It is hoped that the center and side headings of this article are sufficiently clear to allow the reader to review rapidly the foregoing observations. He is not expected to take them all on faith but if here and there an observation may suggest to him another more important consideration, the space so generously given to this article will have been well spent.

The Children's Room

A long, low room aglow with winter sun;
Fair windows fronting on a busy street
Where sights to please the fancy, shifting pass.
Yet no eye glances through the shining panes;
The world's forgotten here and silence reigns.
Low cases, deftly fitted, line the walls,
Well-stored with many a rare and curious tome
In crimson, purple, blue and mossy-green,
Whose golden gleaming titles fitly tell
Of all the wondrous treasures they enfold.
Quaint pictures, hung for Lilliputian eyes,
Glow in the friendly light and plainly tell
To those whose alphabet is yet unlearned,
Wild tales of Norsemen's galleys, Roman walls,
White saints, vile dragons, kings and haughty queens.
The swarming Lilliputians hither come,—
A studious race, on curious learning bent,
With fleece as gold as Jason's, eyes as bright
As Sinbad's stones in magic valley found,
And in their look a potent witchery
That rules a royal realm without a sword.
Here do they read and here they, waking dream,
While slowly sinks the sun and twilight falls.
Dream, do we say, and yet 'tis on such dreams
That Life itself may feed when Youth is gone.

From *The Bellman*, Nora Archibald Smith

Glimpses into Foreign Classrooms

NILA BANTON SMITH
Professor of Education and Head of the Department of Education, Greensboro College, Greensboro, North Carolina

ONE hears much of the progressive primary schools of Europe, but rarely does one hear anything about primary work in the public schools of the foreign countries. The purpose of this article is to give readers of Childhood Education a glimpse into first-grade classrooms of public schools in Italy and Germany.

For the sake of concrete illustration, a visit to a single classroom in each country was chosen for discussion. Care was taken, however, to select for this description a classroom which is typical of the general public school practices of the country in which it is located.

AN ITALIAN CLASSROOM

The Italian classroom which will be discussed in this article is located in an elementary school in one of the better sections of Rome. Upon entering this school I was greeted cordially by the principal, who in response to my request led me to a first grade room occupied by girls. As we approached the room we could see the children through the glass door, heads bent over slates, busily engaged in writing something. As we stepped across the threshold, however, a seemingly magical transformation occurred. With one accord, every child leapt to her feet, raised her entire right arm straight above her shoulder, palm outward, and stood for an instant with eyes turned solemnly upon us. Then, simultaneously, each one lowered her arm, sat down again and resumed her writing, all in soldier-like unison. The teacher stood quietly by, intently watching the procedure and plainly exhibiting the pride she felt in such well-trained proteges.

Starting to school with their large school bags.

The principal explained that this was the salute used by the Ancient Romans and that teachers were now attempting to perpetuate it by training their pupils always to give it in greeting superiors or visitors.

The children were attractive little girls with the olive skin and dusky hair which one would expect to see in daughters of Italy. They were clothed in blue and white uniforms, a special feature of this particular school. The children in general throughout Italy wear black sateen frocks to school. Teachers in Italy are also required to dress in uniform, both in regard to the outer garments and the school dress, the latter of which is universally the black frock. The teacher in this first grade was wearing the usual garment.

The next object which caught my eye was so conspicuous as to be second in appeal only to the children themselves. It was a huge, plain, clear-cut black and white portrait, placed squarely on the front wall in such a position that the children must look upon it whenever they raised their eyes from their books. It represented the stern countenance which one instantly recognizes as that of Benito Mussolini. Beside this picture and to the right was another, a portrait of a gentleman with a decorative headpiece and a mild face. Upon examining the inscription underneath the picture one discovered that this was the portrait of the King of Italy.

The room was equipped with screwed-down, double desks of uniform size. Each one was occupied by two children. There was considerable space in the front of the room. The teacher's desk stood to the left

Italian peasant children wearing the black sateen uniforms

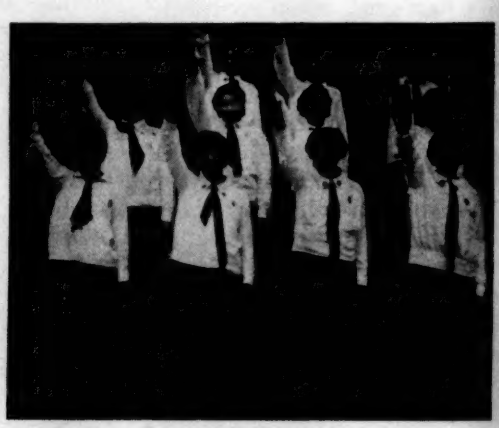
of this space, a movable blackboard for the teacher's use and a counting frame of the abacus type stood to the right. The entire middle portion of the space was given over to vases filled with flowers which the children had brought and which had been arranged in a semi-circle extending almost across the entire front of the room.

A series of little blackboards about 2 x 3 feet in size was suspended from wires extending along the right and back walls about five feet above the floor. These blackboards were covered with colored drawings which the teacher had placed upon them as permanent decorations. The first of these pictures represented a body of soldiers marching along in truly militaristic fashion, the second depicted some birds, the third a castle, the fourth more soldiers, and then a rabbit, a hen, and more soldiers, and so on: the dominant theme was marching soldiers.

I asked the teacher if she would teach the reading lesson which she had planned for the day. She opened the lesson by telling each child to sit up straight and place her hands behind her. A few minutes were spent in reviewing sounds of letters previously taught. A new sound was then presented and pronounced by the children, first in unison, and then individually. After this the children were directed to turn to a desi nated page in their reader and read severa words in which the new sound was applied The teacher closed the lesson by dictating and writing on the board a little story whicl made much use of the new sounds taught. The children wrote the story carefully and excellently. Then they were allowed to draw a picture on the paper with colored crayons to illustrate its content.

During the course of the reading lesson I had noted that seventy pages of the first reader were given over to phonetic families, and that the last thirty pages were devoted to little stories. I asked the teacher if these were old tales. She gave the following explanation: "Most of the stories are old tales but another year it will be different. It will be much better. Mussolini is having one set of readers made for all Italy. In these readers the most of the stories will be about current events. He is going to have them revised each year and keep them up to date with the current happenings. It will be much better then."

As if this conversation had reminded her of something important, the teacher hastily pulled a stack of papers out of her desk and handed them to me to examine. The papers contained copies the children had made of a composition which had been composed and written on the board by the teacher the previous day. Its content was as follows:



They gave me the salute which had been used by the ancient Romans.

22 March

On March 23 all Italy will celebrate the solemn occasion of the birthday of the "Fascismo" in honor of "Al Duce," the great savior of our country.

Beneath the writing in each child's copy there appeared a crayoned illustration of a stick figure wearing a soldier's cap and a black shirt and holding his right arm straight out as if in the act of giving the Roman Salute!

After duly examining this exhibition of loyalty to the leader of the Fascist organization, I opened a new line of conversation by asking, "Do you teach religion in your classroom?"

"Yes, indeed," replied the teacher. "We have religion every day."

"How do you teach it?" was my next question.

"We open our recitations every morning with a prayer," explained the teacher. "We tell Biblical stories, and we give lessons on the life of Christ, the Apostles, and on the Ten Commandments. We stress some practical elements but our chief aim is to make better citizens by the cultivation of the spirit. We give much attention to this."

After this explanation, the teacher said she would like to have me hear the children sing "Giovinezza" the Fascist hymn. At the teacher's command the children rose to their feet and sang the hymn as spiritedly and lustily as American children sing "My Country 'Tis of Thee."

It was now time for recess, and the children filed out of the room two by two, feet in perfect time, in a long straight line down the hall and out to the playground.

I found the playground to be occupied by several groups of children each doing formal calisthenics under a teacher's direction. One group was receiving intensive instruction in the art of giving the Roman Salute. The first grade whom I had been observing were put through a series of rigorous gymnastics by the teacher.

At recess the playground was occupied by several groups of children each doing formal calisthenics under a teacher's direction.

When the recess period was over I informed the teacher that it would be necessary for me to leave at this time, whereupon she sent one of the little girls scurrying to the classrooms to get a huge bunch of crimson tulips which were presented to me as a token of Italian hospitality. Following this demonstration, the children were arranged, by their teacher, in an orderly fashion on the school house steps and instructed to give me the Roman Salute. This they did most solemnly and precisely. I had seen the act performed so many times now that

I returned it in kind, although I felt much more like jauntily waving my hand as we in America would do when taking leave of a group of first grade children.

A German Classroom

The German classroom which I am about to describe is located in an elementary school in Berlin. The school itself is a square red-brick structure not unlike the conventional urban school-house which one sees everywhere in America. Upon entering the building I noticed large groups of children passing to their respective classrooms in an orderly but informal fashion. Teachers were stationed here and there serving "hall duty," but at no time during my observation did a teacher have occasion to speak to a child concerning his conduct.

In response to my request, the principal escorted me to a first grade room. Here I found thirty-six wholesome, attractive little girls dressed in dainty dresses of a variety of colors and designs. Most of them had bobbed hair but two or three were still wearing the traditional flaxen braids. They were seated two in a seat in three rows of fixed desks. The desks, however, varied in size, those in the front being very low, and the others gradually growing higher as they extended to the back of the room.

There were three large windows on the right side of the room so large that they occupied nearly all of the side-wall space. Each window was composed of many panes of glass, any one of which could be opened separately. Plain green shades were suspended from the top of the windows and the casement of each was filled with attractive flowering plants.

The back wall was adorned with large framed pictures of scenery. A row of hooks extended across the lower part of this wall and from each hook was suspended a towel which belonged to some individual pupil. The children bring these towels from home and replace them as often as necessary to keep them fresh.

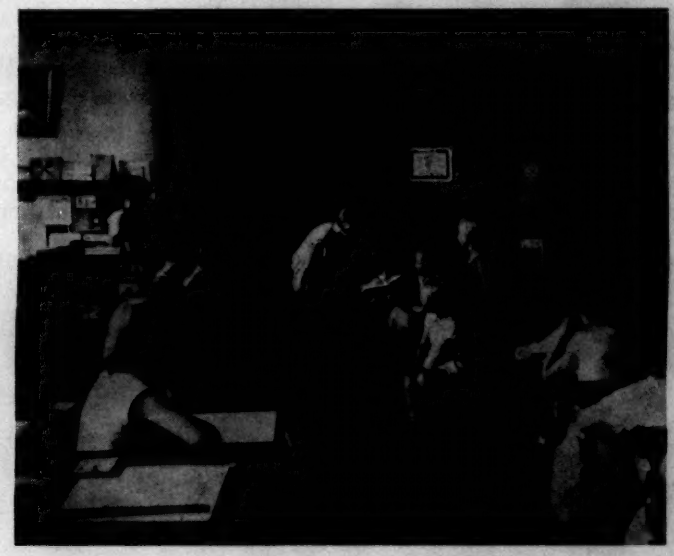
The lower part of the right wall was entirely covered with burlap, and the burlap in turn was decorated with exhibits of the pupils' work. There were a number of drawings, crude and informal, but undoubtedly of the children's own creation, each expressing the ideas of a different individual. There were, also, several copies of a prayer, each of which was decorated with an original design.

A cupboard stood near the drawing exhibits. The shelves of the cupboard were

German school children carry large school bags on their backs.

filled with a variety of clay modellings: vases, bowls, trays, and flower pots, each designed after the individual plan of its own creator.

The front of the room was largely given over to a raised platform upon which the teacher's desk was placed. Back of the platform was a blackboard composed of two sections, the upper of which could be slid up and down at will. There were two steps placed in front of the board upon which the children could stand when they wished to write on the upper section. To the right of the platform was the teacher's cabinet containing books and boxes of materials; and to the left was a sandtable upon which the children had been working out a representation of their community. Nearby, was another low table covered with an attractive spread and supporting vases of colorful flowers.



The children dramatized a story which the teacher had just told.

To return to the children, themselves, I noted with interest that each one of them had laid upon her desk an extraordinarily large bag. There was a tin drinking cup fastened to the outside of each bag, and the inside apparently was bulging with materials. I was exceedingly curious to learn the nature of the materials which a first grade child had need of carrying in such a big bag. The teacher permitted me to examine the contents of one of them and these are the articles which I found:

(1) An individual blackboard about 10 x 14 inches in size, encased in a heavy paper folder.
(2) A folder containing three copy books, one for reading in which the child had written some letters and sounds, one for numbers in which she had placed some colored dots in different number combinations, and one for drawings in which she had placed illustrations of compositions.
(3) A board for plastelene modelling.
(4) A box of colored wooden crayons.
(5) A box of pasteboard domino cards to use in number work.
(6) A box of colored sticks for use in making letters and phonetic combinations in connection with reading.
(7) A box of colored tablets for making designs, etc.
(8) A celluloid soap box containing the child's individual cake of soap.
(9) A large box of letter cards.

Having satisfied my curiosity in regard to the bags, I withdrew to an inconspicuous corner of the room, where I might observe

the reading lesson which the teacher was about to conduct.

As a preliminary explanation, I might say at this point that these children had been in school only since Easter, a period of about six weeks and consequently were in the earliest stages of reading instruction. The teacher explained that they were to learn the names and sounds of all of the letters and most of the combinations before the primer would be placed in their hands, and that this would require about six months' time.

The purpose of this particular lesson was to review the names of the letters "l" and "o," to teach their respective sounds, and learn to blend them. The teacher explained that she tried to draw upon as many different subjects as possible in each lesson, and that in this reading lesson she intended to use music, handwork and dramatization.

She began the lesson by having the children sing in unison an alphabet verse about "l." Different children were then called upon to sing or recite the verse individually. The same procedure was used in reviewing "o."

The children were then given instruction in sounding "l" and "o" separately, and in blending them to make the syllable "lo." After this, the children sang up and down the scale singing the syllable "lo" instead of the names of the notes. Following this exercise, the children formed the syllable "lo" on their desks with colored sticks.

The lesson was concluded by a dramatization. The teacher took two cards from her cabinet. A large letter "l" was pasted on one of them and a large "o" on the other. There was a string attached to each card. Two children were called to the front of the room and one of the cards was suspended from each child's neck. The class sounded the "name" of one child ("l"), then they sounded the "name" of the other child ("o"). The two children then ran together and embraced (blending the "l" and "o"). Following this dramatization, the children were called upon to tell what the two sounds said when together, and answered in unison "lo."

After completing the reading lesson, the children gathered informally about the teacher, and she told the Biblical story of

The playground was spacious and remarkably attractive.

how little Moses was found by Pharaoh's daughter. The children then dramatized the story, largely supplying their own speeches and directing their own actions.

No note of formality in discipline entered into the class activities at any time. An air of freedom pervaded the room. The children were well behaved but did not hesitate to speak to one another or to the teacher. Upon several occasions one child left her seat to help another with her work. Never once were the children told to place their hands behind them or to assume any other fixed position.

At the end of every hour the children were permitted to go out on the playground for a period of ten minutes. I went with them as they passed informally out of the room after finishing their dramatization. The playground was spacious and remarkably attractive. One section of it was left clear for the children to play games upon; another section contained several little well-kept gardens, one for each grade; and a third section contained beautiful old trees and closely-clipped grass. The last named part was used for dramatizations and pageants, and sometimes the teachers took the children out there to sit under the trees while reciting their lessons.

The little first graders whom I had been observing were entirely undirected by their teacher while on this playground, and went weaving themselves in and out among the other children engaging in whatever plays their childish fancy dictated.

The First Patriotic Song

As a great patriot, and at the same time attentive to music because fond of it, Washington must have been familiar with the chief patriotic songs of the fiery period in which he lived. As a rule, these patriotic outbursts were written to fit the rhythm and melody of English songs so well known and widely sung that they could be used at once as vehicles for the new texts.

The first patriotic song published, and, so far as discovered, the first separately printed piece of sheet music issued in the Colonies, was the Liberty Song (In Freedom We're Born). Published in Boston in August, 1768, it was written in this troubled year by John Dickinson of Philadelphia, author of the widely read *Letters of a Pennsylvania Farmer*, to fit the then popular tune of Hearts of Oak by William Boyce of London. It was sung throughout the Colonies, for the words were widely printed north and south. At this time of intense feeling the song could not have escaped the notice of such a patriot as Washington.—From *The Music That Washington Knew*, by WILLIAM ARMS FISHER.

The School Environment for the Four Year Child

JANE BERNHARDT AND MARGARET DAWSON
Classroom Teachers, University of California at Los Angeles, California

NOW that the kindergarten has generally assumed responsibility for the education of children between the years of four and six, one hears the question quite generally asked by parents and supervisors what distinction is made by the schools in the education of children in the first year of kindergarten, and in their second year of kindergarten. Or, "what shall we give the four-year-olds to do?" This latter question would indicate a tendency to selection, if not of tasks, at least of experiences through which the four-year-olds should pass. Teachers are heard to remark that the four-year-olds have the same materials that the five-year-olds have "but cannot do much with them." If children at four are not wholehearted and independent in confronting the materials and situations with which the kindergarten surrounds them, does it not mean that too complicated or exacting materials and experiences are being foisted upon them early in their experience? Must we not consider what drives are most urgent for a four-year-old and how he attains his ends? Or, we might state our question as being what constitutes satisfactory living from the viewpoint of the four-year-old?

The park stepping stones.

In providing experiences for four-year-olds the kindergarten has perhaps tended toward the purposeful interpretations that belong rather to the senior kindergarten or even the primary and elementary grades. In order to interpret the four-year-old to his school, however, we need to develop an appreciation for the highly sensory, manipulative, experimental, trial and error sort of thing that often is most genuine living at four. Much learning at this point has its beginning in activity for its own sake. For at four many of the results of experiencing, far from being consciously purposed on the child's part, are quite accidental. And many experiences of this simple sensory, manipulative, trial and error sort must precede the more consciously purposeful learning of later stages of development.

Moreover, so closely are the expressive activities such as dramatic play of various kinds, dramatization of stories, language usage bound up with activities which have their beginning in the liberating atmosphere of keen sensory enjoyment, of physical activity for its own sake, that any situation which tends to separate these tends to devitalize the learning of four-year-olds. Those schools which have arranged an environment in character more nearly approximating a supervised playground, park, or gardens than what we usually think of as kindergarten rooms have gone far to solve the problem of a wholesome learning situation for four-year-olds. Some city kindergartens have accomplished this by use of the roof for outdoor play. Others use the playground providing that swings, jungle gym, wagons, balls, and sand pile, far from being relegated to an outdoor ten minutes of recess per hour be-

come an integral part of the planned learning situation.

One kindergarten situated so as to be accessible to a nearby park reports the following experiences and sensory appreciations—all of these, except walking to the park, self-initiated by the children:

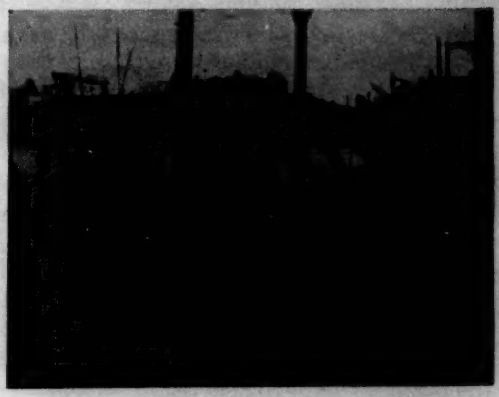
walking to the park,
tumbling on the lawn,
fishing for polywogs in the stream,
balancing on stepping stones over the stream,
dabbling fingers in the water,
lying flat on the grass and thrusting hands into miniature waterfalls,
floating leaves and grass in the water,
walking along the stream, following stream curves,
walking around flower beds on stream banks and discovering the stream again, on the other side—(This activity is always accompanied by the delight of discovery and surprise),
feeling lily pads,
feeling elephant ears,
children measuring elephant ears against themselves,
gathering fallen blossoms and buds.

Such a list of experiences as this recognizes the four-year-olds' strong penchant for satisfying a keen sensory inquisitiveness.

Another kindergarten group utilized a vacant lot covered with tall weeds for experiences, as suggested:

walking in the weeds,
feeling the sensation of brushing against grasses,

Water play.



"Swinging up to Heaven."

following a trodden path through grasses,
coming unexpectedly upon children hidden in the grass—this accompanied by the delight of exploration and discovery.

A simple walk around the school block disclosed to the children a water meter—a square of metal set in the sidewalk—quite by accident one child stepped on this metal plate and was attracted by the difference in sound made as opposed to the sound on the pavement. By a series of experiments he tried out the sounds by walking first here and then on the sidewalk. This was imitated satisfyingly by other members of the group in turn. Thereafter the group in walking around the block looked forward to coming upon the water meter which encounter now takes the form of a single run and a jump on the meter with much appreciation of the resonant quality of sound produced. Where gardens or a park are impossible of access a kindergarten lawn goes far to break down conventionalized procedures. A lawn offers a perfect carpet for trying out physical feats.

"Let's dance" is also a response to the lawn. Where a piano is accessible this situation becomes ideal for rhythmic development.

There is a great sensory delight to be had in swings—the rush through the air—the delight of movement—the wind in the face. Children often sing and chant rhythmically as they swing. The swings shown here are placed four in a group so that the children

have the feeling of swinging beside each other. They often chant, in rhythm, as they swing:

"We're swinging up to heaven,
We're swinging up to heaven."

The teacher of this group considers these swings the most difficult learning situation on the grounds for four year-olds, however, due to the social adjustments involved.[1] The matter of standing up for one's own rights for a turn requires stamina. Yet so keen is the delight in the activity that even the timid attempt to face the issue. Character and firmness must be present to insist on "my turn" from the disadvantage of standing below as the swing goes flying by.

Dancing on the lawn.

Anger reactions such as running to the swing or grabbing are often penalized by a bump. The spoiled child often meets here a situation which requires more poise than he is accustomed to exert in getting his way. In one group under observation Alice, the most timid child in the group, required six months to assert herself with sufficient force to get a swing without appeal to the teacher.

A piece of apparatus which is rich in learning for four-year-olds is the slide. Social tensions are not so great here as at the swing, since the span of waiting turns is

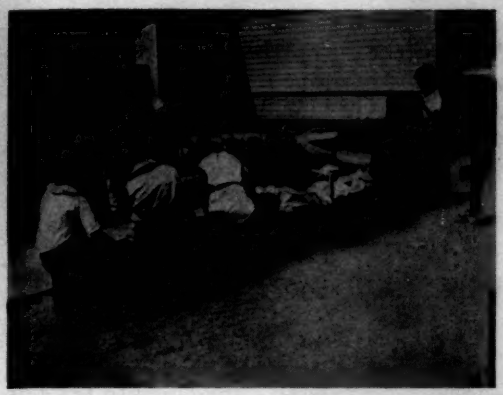
[1] Reports from nursery schools indicate that they also face this problem. Many have been successful in developing a habit of asking for a turn and of the swing's possessor listening to the request and agreeing upon a time for the turn. The question is being asked, "To what extent should the children's use of physical force in the solution of their social conflicts be conditioned by the development of their facility in language usage?" —Ed.

Dramatic play. Dickie, life guard, getting down to save Dorothy Ann.

relatively shorter and giving a turn to the next comer involves no sacrifice. The slide situation often offers satisfying dramatic play and story dramatization as far as four-year-olds are concerned. The play of "Three Billy Goats Gruff" is a play that has often occurred at one kindergarten slide and contains an interesting suggestion as to how the children themselves settle the question of who is who in a cast of characters. The play was this:

Dickie, sliding, kicked his heels against the slide chute as he came down. Betty, sitting beneath, called "Trip, trap, who goes over my bridge?" When Dickie arrived at the bottom Betty ran out to meet him and the drama climaxed in the meeting and delighted peals of laughter.

A boat or boats and gangplanks.



A train made by four-year-olds from apple boxes. The play consists of little but sitting and making characteristic train noises. Whenever a child wishes to join in the play he brings a box and adds it to the train.

Upon repetition of this other children were attracted by the sounds and joined in the play, several becoming Billy Goats Gruff and sliding in turn; others, sitting under the slide as trolls and calling out in unison. There are always more Billy Goats Gruff than trolls in this play because more people like to slide and kick than like to sit under the slide and call out.

The jungle gym is also a most vital stimulus to dramatization and dramatic play, in addition to the motor skill and agility it encourages. Climbing about on the jungle gym often suggests boat to the children—sometimes a passenger boat, sometimes a fishing boat. In the accompanying illustration the children have asked the teacher to help them lift the long boxes on the jungle gym. These then become life boats, which, when the boat sinks, are pulled down and in them the passengers escape. One child climbing high on the jungle gym expressed his feeling of liberation in this way—stretching out his arms:

"I am a giant.
I am taller than anybody.
I am taller than anybody.
Anybody!
Anybody!"

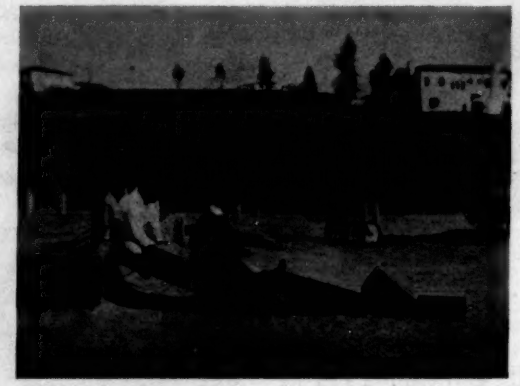
Auto mechanics. Something wrong, we'll fix it.

Many kindergartens which have felt the greater invitation to spontaneous and wholehearted activity to keener sensory experience which is offered in a situation less confined and restricted than is offered by most kindergarten rooms, have solved the problem—at least in all but very bad weather—by moving outdoors for the major part of the day. In such a situation very ideal pieces of equipment for four-year-olds are tricycles, large balls, boxes of all sizes ranging from packing boxes to apple crates. Small kegs are also delightfully suggestive to the children. The long boxes shown in this jungle gym picture have been found by our kindergarten to be invaluable equipment. They were designed originally for packing books, and have holes for the hands at each end—to assist moving. If to these are added light boards smooth and sandpapered down to make handling a pleasure,

Hollow block house.

they are tremendously popular with four-year-olds.

Further equipment which fills the needs of four-year-olds delightfully, as far as construction and building is concerned, are the Hollow Yard Blocks put out by Pendleton and Townsend.[1] These blocks are hollow inside, giving a weight well adjusted to the needs of four-year-olds in lifting and heaving. They are well made and joined together substantially in a way to prevent swelling and warping, so that they may be left outdoors.



An automobile. David making rotary motion for motor.

This house and garage is illustrative of a house quite satisfying at four. It was easily built, the blocks lending themselves to take form and build up quickly. The skill required is well within the range of the four-year-old. Here the blocks are outdoors and the noise incidental to building within walls has been eliminated. The following series is representative of the way in which purposes often arise at four.

David and Kenneth had laid a plank at the edge of the sand box to make an inclined plane. They made steps leading up to the plane using Hollow Yard Blocks.

In walking and balancing, David slipped and sat down. This sitting posture, with his feet scotched by a block suggested automobile. At once the situation became automobile, David making a rotary movement with his arms, to represent turning the wheel.

After a few seconds successful "steering," David suggested to Kenneth that something was wrong with the automobile. Both climbed down and peered beneath "to fix it." The tendency to try out situations, to come upon new adventures quite by accident, is illustrated by this series which is quite representative of the construction and dramatic play at the four-year-level.

Such situations are typical of the experiencing of four-year-olds—originating in activity for its own sake, keen in sensory perception.

Should not our kindergartners guarantee to the four-year-old the necessity of manipulating objects, of playing with and enjoying with the senses his world before he is expected to carry out pre-arranged purposes? Are we not by pushing downward on our four-year-olds an education designed for older children, limiting that keenness of learning, that motor and sensory experimentation which is the vital essence of his living at four?

[1] Patterson, N. Y.

It is a dangerous hardihood to scorn what we do not understand. Do you suppose the limits of truth to be your own understanding?

MONTAIGNE

The Activity Curriculum

BIANCA ESCH
Director, Kindergarten-Primary Education, Louisville Normal School, Louisville, Kentucky

THE following is a record of a unit of work carried on for six weeks by a second grade in the Louisville Normal School. Name of unit, The Library; duration of unit, six weeks.

INTEREST—STIMULATION

In order to take better care of the books in the school room, the children became interested in establishing a library in one corner of the room.

1. A trip to a library was made.
2. Pictures and posters of libraries were placed around the room.
3. Poems and stories about books were read to the children.
4. Interesting books for the children to examine and read were placed on the reading table.

AIMS—OBJECTIVES

1. To encourage a deep and permanent interest in reading.
2. To encourage an interest in books.
3. To encourage proper care in handling books.
4. To establish right habits of conduct in the library.
5. To acquaint the children with good books and authors for children of their ages.
6. To build up an appreciation of libraries and of their service to the community.

CHILDREN'S AIM

To provide a library corner for the school room.

RELATED SUBJECT MATTER

A. Language

Oral

I. Conversation and Discussion

1. Planning the library for the room
2. Planning the construction
3. Discussing care of books
4. Discussing where we get books to read
5. Planning a trip to a library
6. Discussion of the trip upon return
7. Planning a checking system
8. Formation of library rules
9. Planning and selecting committees
10. Formation of book club

II. Story Telling

Telling stories in book club meeting

III. Original Stories and Verses

Stories inspired by pictures, books, trip to library, etc.

IV. Dramatization

Playing library
Stories read in books from library

V. Correction of Language Errors

Those made by children when they gave reports, told stories, etc.

Written

I. Records

Recording library experiences with teacher
Keeping diary of progress of library
Writing sentences about books read

II. Communication

Letter of thanks to librarian
Letter thanking supervisor for books
Invitation to another class to visit the library
Letter inviting Mother to book club meeting

III. Creative

Writing original stories and rhymes

B. Reading

1. Blackboard and chart reading lessons relating to the library activities
2. Bulletin board and class newspaper items relating to library
3. Booklets children make for library table
4. Posters, signs, labels for the library
5. Books in the library
6. Poster catalogue of books in the library
7. Reading book reviews written by children

C. Literature

I. Any literature suitable for children of this grade

II. Suggested Books for a Second Grade Library

Peter Rabbit—Little Black Sambo—Baby Aesop—The Twins and Tabiffa, The Fun Book—Under the Story Tree—Peter Patter—The Real Mother Goose—About Harriett—First Grade Primers and Readers

III. Poems—"For Days and Days"—Annette Wynne

Book, Book—My Book—Books Never Tell—Books Are Soldiers—Poets Have the Best of Time—My Book Holds Many Stories

D. Number Work

I. Counting

Forming of committees and division of work
Number of materials needed
Keeping record of books

II. Number Facts

Addition and reverse forms will be brought into use
Problems based on number of books in the library, etc.

III. Reading and Writing of Numbers

Changing stamp
Changing calendar
Reading numbers of books

IV. Measuring

Floor area—length and width
Equipment
Time-hours of opening and closing of library; for recording dates

V. Meaning of Terms

Check, borrow, overdue, charge, depth, height, width, opposite

VI. Fractions

Meaning of $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{4}$

E. Science—Health

Caring for plants in the library
Seeing that there is proper light and ventilation for reading
Correct habits while reading—posture, holding book correct distance from eyes, cleanliness of hands
Making health books for the library table

F. Music

Children originated melodies for poems about books

G. Art

Making posters and signs for the library
Decorating the library
Making book marks
Decorating book jackets
Making pictures for the library
Making pictures for booklets
Making mats for the table
Arranging flowers for the library
Designing book plates

H. Writing

Lettering signs
Practice of words used in diaries, stories, letters, etc.
Writing of sentences for booklets

I. Spelling

Words relating to the unit—library, desk, overdue, fines, borrow, etc.

J. Games and Play

Story Plays relating to library activities—cleaning library—taking books from shelves—running to and from the library

K. Construction Activities

Making furniture for library (if necessary) Comfortable ready-made tables and chairs are preferable
Shelves for books—Cushions and chair backs—rug for floor—curtains for shelves—waste paper basket—bulletin board—book ends—candles and candle holders—vases—pencil holders—trays—clock for library

L. Excursions

Trip to a public school, church, or home library to see arrangements for care of books

Outcomes

1. A library corner in the school room
2. A greater respect for and appreciation of books
3. A greater desire and love for reading
4. Knowledge of books and authors
5. Knowledge of library conduct
6. Appreciation of value of a library to a community
7. Growth in reading ability

8. Respect for rights of others
9. Growth in cooperation
10. Growth in habits and skills in use of tools and materials
11. An improved use of leisure time
12. Organization of a book club
13. Interest and desire to make a museum to add to the library

Provision for Subject Matter

The advocates of the Activity Curriculum say that when children set out upon an activity which involves a solution of problems they immediately feel the need for information they do not have. This information is drawn from various fields of subject matter. The teacher who has analyzed their problems provides materials and guidance which helps them gain a rich background in various subjects related to the problems. They get this information and knowledge when they need it.

Every activity program that I have read about, know, or have seen in operation, use the so called "Work Books" for practice and drill in arithmetic, language skills, reading, geography, etc. Some make their own material as in Winnetka, others use the commercial ones. Objective tests are given at regular intervals.

Rugg says, "In the carrying out of these 'centers of interest' a place should be provided for the conventional social skills which have played a large part in the curriculum making of the past."

The records of units of work and the report cards used in various activity schools make definite provision for subject matter.

Programs of Work

I found many variations in the organization and carrying out of the year's work in activity schools. The various plans seem to be:

1. Developing all the activities and interests of the year about one central theme and making most of the work contribute to it.
2. Utilizing a succession of short units which may or may not be related to each other, each occupying the attention of the group for several weeks or months.
3. Utilizing one rich central unit and permitting the development of an indefinite number of small units suggested by the main interests or by new interests which children may discover later.
4. Utilizing short units running simultaneously throughout the year and which may or may not be related to each other.
5. Supplementing these units of work by specific subjects of study, periods set aside for history, mathematics, etc., entirely unrelated to the units being carried out.

Many programs not claiming to be on the activity basis make arrangement for so called "Activity Periods" one, two, or three times a week. Often a daily period is set aside for activity work. This I might say is quite generally the case in all kindergarten and primary plans of organization.

An Old-Fashioned Child

I love to make bright, pretty things,
  Just because they're pretty;
I do not name them anything
  In home or store or city.
My teacher thinks them of no use,
  But then she doesn't know
How glad I am inside of me
  When I make "pretties" grow.

Catharine R. Watkins

Building Blocks as a Third Grade Activity

O. E. HEATON
Principal, Logan School, Spokane, Washington

MODERN progressive schools recognize the great educational values of activity work in the primary grades. There is much very fine material to be found on activity work in the lower primary grades but very little on upper primary work, and especially is this true of block work in the third grade. Whether this type of work has been regarded as mere play and too juvenile for third grade pupils, or whether it is thought of as something extraneous to the fundamentals, I do not understand. But as teachers we are losing one of the finest opportunities if we fail to capitalize this most worth-while activity. It is educationally sound because interest is the impelling force leading to definite learning. There is nothing that will develop the individuality of the child so quickly as will this type of work. He works by himself or with other children at the thing he likes to do, in the way he thinks it should be done.

The interest aroused in illustrating transportation by building a boat, a wagon, train, bus or airplane will necessarily carry over into other work.

After discussing the project from its various angles with the other members of the group they set about to build it. No matter what they decide to build the same principles hold true. Whether it is building a castle to illustrate a reading lesson, a wagon, train, bus, or airplane to illustrate land or air transportation, ships for water transportation, sawmills for lumbering, amusement parks for play, store buildings for commercial work, fencing plots for arithmetic, or an up-to-date city street car system, they build and rebuild. It never becomes monotonous because the rebuilt project is an improvement over the first model.

For example, a group of third grade pupils decided to build an up-to-date saw mill to illustrate their geography unit. After they had discussed plans among themselves, with the teacher, and with the other members of the class, they proceeded with their task, and in due time finished it. The work was not what the teacher thought it should be, and so a consultation was held and the group agreed that they wanted to visit a really up-to-date mill to see if they could find out wherein they had failed, and in what ways they could improve their block interpretation of a mill. The teacher arranged for the trip, the pupils having decided beforehand what they particularly needed to see. A workman conducted them through the mill, made explanations and answered questions. They came back, and a new mill was erected with most amazing results. Every item of a well organized mill was there, the pond filled with logs, the log carriage, the saw carriages, the squared logs, the band saws, the circular saws, the cut-off and sorting racks, lumber trucks, and the many different kinds of lumber.

Thus, as a result of the first building, they go back to their books again or make a trip to where this type of work is under construction and return with further information to tear down and re-build in the light of the new materials and information they are able to get. When the work is finally

finished, the other pupils are asked to pass judgment upon it and to use it in whatever way will produce the best results in their class work.

We are bringing into the school the finest part of the home life of the child, his interest and enthusiasm. Let us capitalize this most important asset by furnishing him with stimulating materials with which to work. He has reached an age when he has outgrown the small blocks and play blocks. He wants something more difficult—something that will tax his inventive ingenuity—something that will permit him to work out larger projects and yet something that is easily convertible from one type of work to another. There are commercial blocks on the market which meet this requirement and serve as a means of interpreting the child's understanding of material read.

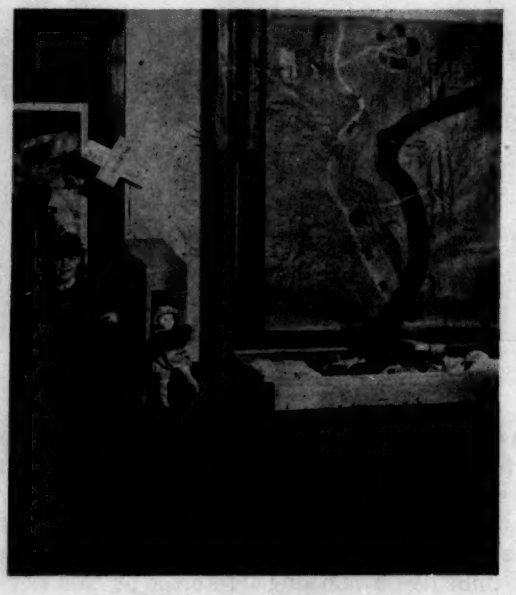
I hear someone say, "Yes, it is all right so far as play materials are concerned, but what about arithmetic, language, reading, and geography? Will it help him in these?" Can you think of anything more interesting to the child than to have him tell you about the train he has built or to have him write it out for you, or describe the measurements he had to take for his dimensions, or to reproduce for you the reading matter he had to assimilate before he could proceed with his project? Can you imagine such intense interest as this not carrying over into his other work? And probably the greatest benefit children of any age derive from this type of work is the social touch they get by rubbing shoulders with the other fellow, by giving and taking, by learning fair dealing and helpfulness and experiencing it all with such tremendous interest that it not only permeates their school work but carries over into their home life.

Construction work with blocks helps a child with arithmetic, language, reading and geography.

Toy Excursion through the Delaware Water Gap

JULIA C. DULLES
Kindergarten Training Teacher, State Teachers College, East Stroudsburg, Pennsylvania

THE Kindergarten Train Unit started with an excursion to the "Overhead Bridge" three blocks from the college campus. This bridge crosses the tracks of the main line of the Delaware and Lackawanna and Western Railroad. On our several visits to this bridge the children saw local and through passenger and freight trains, tracks, switches, switch signals, block signals in operation, shifting engine at work, freight cars being shifted and loaded and unloaded at the freight station, gasoline and hand cars transporting section gang and tools, cattle loading platform and yard, etc.



A crossing gate was made and placed across the doorway with a signal tower near.

An excursion was made to the railroad station where they saw a through train from Buffalo to New York City. The children saw the engine getting water and had a chat with the engineer who got down from his cab to talk to them. He was surprised at their questions and their knowledge of such things as cab, tender, driving wheels, piston, etc. They saw and learned the names and uses of day coach, Pullman, diner, sleeping and observation cars.

After the train left we went into the station where the friendly ticket agent showed us the interior of the ticket office. The children saw the pigeon holes filled with tickets, the date stamp, the typewriter, the clock, the telegraph instrument at work, etc. On the way back to school we walked over the grade crossing and noticed the crossing gates and signal tower.

Most of the children had never ridden on a train so a trip from East Stroudsburg, through the Delaware Water Gap, to Delaware, New Jersey, was arranged. The children walked to the station, bought their own tickets, "Half fare to Delaware, New Jersey, please," and boarded the train. There is not space to record all their comments, a few remarks illustrating individual observation follow:

"See, the trees are walking."
"That's the Delaware River."
"Look, the signal lights went on."
"When we cross the river we are in New Jersey."
"The train is going faster than anyone could run."

When we got off the train some wanted to thank the engineer for running the train and "not bumping us when her stopped."

We were met at Delaware by some of the parents who brought us back to school by auto. The drive of about twelve miles was nearly parallel to the railroad so the children had an excellent review of their train trip.

For weeks the children fairly lived "trains." Pictures, stories, poems, songs, rhythms, games and dramatic play centered around this activity. At lunch time they played they were in a diner and much dis-

cussion about dining car manners and proper selection of foods took place. During rest period rugs were placed in rows as berths in sleeping cars.

During the free work period a large station was built of the Patty Hill blocks. This station is pictured with its ticket office, waiting room, news stand and platform. The train, made by several of the children, has just arrived at the station. The news stand was supplied with "picture magazines," clay lollipops, Tootsie Rolls, chocolate bars, etc. made by the children.

A crossing gate was made and placed across the doorway with the signal tower near. On the wall may be seen a picture map of their trip made by the children. This map shows the college buildings (top center), mountains (each side), Delaware River (starting upper right), railroad and automobile roads, and East Stroudsburg is a horse which the children saw in a field. Below this map is the sand table with trains, bridges, tunnels, etc., with which the children played.

Running the full length of the room is the miniature Delaware Water Gap. Mountains are made of heavy brown wrapping paper supported by chairs, blocks, etc. The river (which hardly shows in the picture) is of blue paper. Bridges and stations are built of blocks. Boats and trains of wood were made by individuals or small groups.

One of the men in the college class in Visual Education set up a working telegraph unit. Two instruments, with proper wiring and dry batteries, connected two of the stations. Two of the children helped in the installation. Children's names were posted in Morse Code. Several of the children learned to click off and to recognize their names.

During free work period a large station was built, with a ticket office, waiting room, news stand and platform.

Water Gap, Portland, and Delaware stations. In front of the East Stroudsburg station (upper left) is the train waiting to start. Coming up the track (lower center) is a freight train which passed us. On the automobile road are several of the cars that brought us back to school. Crossing the river (lower center and center) are bridges. On the New Jersey side at the bend in the river

Hand bills, patterned after a real Pennsylvania Railroad excursion hand bill, were composed and illustrated by the children. A parade of the children, wearing black construction paper visors and accompanied by a drummer, distributed these hand bills to the other grades and to certain interested college classes. These hand bills set date and time for each group to go on the "Toy

Excursion Through Delaware Water Gap and Return." Toy money was made and distributed to each grade. When an excursion was in progress the travelers were sold yellow half fare tickets for children under twelve years of age and blue whole fare tickets for older children and adults. Tickets were dated by the ticket agent and punched by the conductor or brakeman. First grade children were given a "pretend train ride" in a car made of chairs placed behind the large train pictured.

After passing through the "Water Gap" the visitors had an opportunity to read stories and rhymes composed by the children and printed with a printing set by the teacher; to look at pictures, books, etc., used during the activity; to listen to train songs sung by and verses recited by the children. The picture map was explained by the children and questions answered by them. The crossing gate was lifted and the excursion was over.

During the week that excursions were running the children dated, sold, punched, and collected—

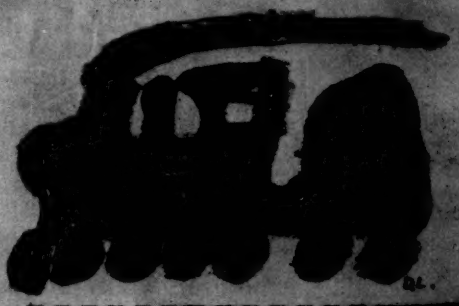
244 yellow half fare tickets
185 blue whole fare tickets

429 total

The Unit As It Was Developed by the Children

I. Experiences
- A. First Hand
  - 1. *Excursions*
    - a. To bridge over railroad
    - b. To railroad station
    - c. Train ride to Delaware, New Jersey
  - 2. *Specimens*
    - a. Timetables
    - b. Excursion handbill
    - c. Tickets
    - d. Conductor's punch
    - e. Date stamp
    - f. Telegraph instrument
  - 3. *Scientific experiments*
    - Boiling water in teakettle
- B. Vicarious
  - 1. *Play materials*
    - Trains—Box that Lox, iron, wooden
    - Blocks—Patty Hill, enlarged bricks
    - Dolls
    - Autos
  - 2. *Posters*
    - Railroad calendars 1930, 1931, 1932. Public Relations Committee, Eastern Railways
    - Train going over bridge. Pennsylvania Railroad
    - When the Broadway Meets the Dawn. Pennsylvania Railroad
    - Giant Conquerors of Space and Time. Pennsylvania Railroad
    - Grand Central Terminal (Interior). New York Central
    - New York Central Building. New York Central
    - North Coast Limited in the Montana Rockies. Northern Pacific
    - Pullman Progress, 1859–1929. Pullman Company
    - What the Pullman Company offers to Travelers. Pullman Company
  - 3. *Leaflets*
    - Many Changes in Pullman Cars since 1858. Pullman Company
    - Putting a Bedroom on Wheels. Pullman Company
    - A Bedroom for Two, 1932. Baltimore and Ohio
    - America's First Railroad, 1925. Pennsylvania Railroad
    - Modern Cars and Locomotives, 1926. Pennsylvania Railroad
    - How the Pennsylvania Railroad has Grown, 1928. Pennsylvania Railroad
  - 4. *Slides—Keystone View Company*
    - P 13 Making Toys that Go
    - P202 Railroad Train Arriving at Ranger, Texas
    - P220 Locomotive and Engineer in Cab
    - P221 Freight Cars in Railroad Freight Yard
    - 43 Modern Methods of Transportation
    - 146 Union Station and Chicago River
    - 184 Comfluence of the Shenandoah and Potomac

4



KINDERGARTEN

RAILROAD

TOY EXCURSION
through
DELAWARE WATER GAP
and return

April 22, 1932

		Fare
Lv. Kindergarten, E. Stroudsburg	9:00	80¢ toy money
" Water Gap	9:05	" " "
" Portland	9:10	" " "
Ar. Delaware	9:15	

Returning

Lv. Delaware	9:20
Ar. Portland	9:25
Ar. Water Gap	9:30
" Kindergarten, E. Stroudsburg	9:35

Children 5 years of age and under 12, half fare

Fare includes entertainment by
Kindergarten Children

Band Selections
Songs
Recitations
Description of Unit
Book Exhibit

For additional information, consult J.C.D------

Rivers at Harper's Ferry, West Virginia
587 Panorama of Melbourne, Australia

5. *Sterograph Pictures—Keystone View Company*
Same as slides

6. *Books*
a. Teacher Information—Children enjoyed and got information from pictures
Book of Knowledge, Vol. I, pages 303–316
Book of Knowledge, Vol. II, pages 598–605
Book of Knowledge, Vol. IX, pages 3574–3581
Carpenter, F. *The Ways We Travel, America*. 1929
The Iron Horse, Chap. 8
On a Fast Express Train, Chap. 9
Fox, F. C. *How the World Rides, The Railway Train*, Chap. II. Scribners 1929

zine, *Travels of George Washington*. January 1932
Swift, H. H. *Little Blacknose*. Harcourt, Brace 1929
b. Children
Kuh, C. *The Engineer*. Macmillan 1929
Lent, H. B. *Clear Track Ahead*. Macmillan 1932
Nicholson, Wm. *Clever Bill*. Doubleday-Page
Reed, H. S. *An Engine's Story*. Scribners 1928

7. *Stories*
Bryant, S. C. *New Stories to Tell to Children, The Engine that Wouldn't Stop*, Page 71. Houghton 1924
LaRue, M. *The F-U-N Book, The Little Tin Train*, Page 7. Macmillan 1924
LaRue, M. *The Good Time Book, The Picnic*, Page 50. Macmillan 1931. (Read to Kindergarten by a group o

Running the full length o the room is the miniature Delaware Water Gap.

Hader, B. & E. *The Picture Book of Travel*. Macmillan 1928
Meigs, C. *The Wonderful Locomotive*. Macmillan 1929
National Geographic Maga-

First Grade Children.)
Miller, O. B. *My Bookhouse*, Vol. I, *In the Nursery, The Little Engine that Could*, Page 209.
Mitchell, L. S. *Here and Now*

Story Book, The Journey, Page 141, *How the Engine Learned the Knowing Song,* Page 153. Dutton 1921.

Wadsworth, W. *The Modern Story Book, The Sad Little Switch Engine,* Page 47. Rand, McNally 1931.

8. *Poems Memorized*

Borie, L. B. *Poems for Peter, The Sweeper Express,* Page 77. Lippincott 1928.

Fox, F. C. *How the World Rides, Railroad Rhyme,* Page 43. Scribners 1929.

Hader, B. & E. *What'll You Do When You Grow Up, An Engineer.* Longmans 1929.

Jackson, L. F. *Peter Patter Book, To Garry on the Toot-toot* and *The Freighter.* Rand, McNally 1918.

Livingston, R. *What Daddies Do, The Conductor,* Page 6; and *The Engineer,* Page 10. Houghton 1916.

Mitchell, L. S. *Here and Now Story Book* and *A Locomotive,* Page 320. Dutton 1921.

9. *Music*

a. Songs

Coleman & Thorn. *Singing Time, Down by the Station,* Page 28, and *The Train,* Page 29. Day 1929.

Music Hour for the Kindergarten-First Grade, *The Young Engineer,* Page 40, *The Flagman,* Page 40, *Concerning Travel,* Page 115, *Engines,* Page 115, Silver Burdett 1928.

Introductory Music, Music Education Series, *The Train,* Page 115, Ginn 1923.

b. *Rhythms*

Moses, I. E. *Rhythmic Action Plays & Dances, Playing Train,* Page 36. Milton ton Bradley 1915.

Robinson, E. M. *School Rhythms, Train,* Page 35. Clayton Summy 1923.

Shafer & Mosher. *Rhythms for Children, #1, Quiet Walk,* Page 16, Barnes 1925.

c. Appreciation

Lyric Primer, *The Railroad Train* (Sung by Head of Music Department). Scott Foresman (out of print).

d. Rhythm Band, *Schumann Soldiers' March* and *Hollaender March.* Victor 22168 A.

II. Creative Expression

A. *Language Arts*

1. *Conversation and Discussion*
   a. Relating experiences previous to taking trips.
   b. Planning trips
   c. During trips
   d. Recalling experiences of trips
   e. What trains do for us
   f. Parts of railroad system
   g. Social side (see Civics)
2. *Dramatic Play*
   a. On Playground
   b. With toys in sand table and on floor
   c. At lunch (dining car)
   d. At rest (sleeping car)
3. *Stories and Rhymes (original)*
   a. Group

Ding a ling, ding a ling,
Back and forth the bells ring.
Ding dong, ding dong,
Hear the bell's little song.

   b. Individual

Choo, choo, choo,
Listen to my little song.
Bob

Choo, choo, choo,
Toot, toot, toot,
Down the track
Came a merry little engine.
Doris L.

Train goes on the track.
Steam makes it go.
Fire makes the steam.
Coal goes in the fire,
Toot, toot, toot, toot, toot.
Albert

The train says
Choo, choo, choo.
The bell goes
Ding, dong, ding.
Teddy

The train went down the track.
The engineer's name was Mack.

Lois

The engine went fast.
The caboose was last.

Patty

Choo, choo, chug, squeak,
Choo, choo, chug, squeak,
Here comes the train.
It'll run over you.

Russell

4. *Train Language*

Ding, ding!	All aboard!
Choo, choo!	Tickets, please!
Ching, ching!	Watch your step!
Chug, chug!	Magazines!
Poop, poop!	Ice cream!
S-sssss	Stroudsburg!
Dong, dong!	Water Gap!
Ding, dong!	Portland!
Chick, chack!	Delaware!
Toot, toot!	

5. *Letters*

A letter was dictated by the children to the teacher. This was typed and mailed to children who were sick at the time the trip to Delaware was taken. Other letters were dictated, typed, and sent through the first grade postoffice to those who had helped us.

B. Music Arts

1. *Rhythmic Expression*
Imitating bell, whistle, puffing, hissing, brakes grinding, etc.
2. *Tone matching*
Calling station names, "All aboard," "Tickets, please," "Watch your step," etc.

C. Fine and Industrial Arts

1. *Wood*
   a. Small engines and cars: 4″ white pine cylinder, 6″ long for boilers; odd pieces soft, for cabs, cars, etc.; 2″ button molds and 4″ cylinders cut ½″ thick for wheels; screw hooks and eyes to join cars; paint and white shellac; spool smoke stacks.
   b. Large engine—nail keg for boiler; odd pieces for base, cab, etc.; ½″ pine cut with coping saws, 8″ diameter for wheels; 8″ piece of 2″ mailing tube for smoke stack; 2″ screws and metal washers to fasten on wheels; paint, white shellac.
   c. Large cars—egg and cranberry crates; 4″ cylinders cut ½″ thick for wheels; 2″ screws; metal washers; green brown, red house paint.
   d. Crossing gate—lathe wound with black crepe paper and white tape.
2. *Card board and Construction Paper*
   a. Signal tower—2 boxes each 12″ x 12″ x 24″, glued one on top of the other, covered with brown wrapping paper, windows and doors cut; block steps.
   b. Visors—black construction paper.
   c. Mountains—wrapping paper supported by blocks and chairs.
   d. River—blue paper torn to curves.
3. *Clay*
Lollipops, Tootsie Rolls etc. Painted and shellaced.
4. *Paints and Crayons*
   a. Magazines for news stand.
   b. Pictures of trains, bridges, signals, etc.
   c. Picture map of trip (Described).
   d. Hand bill.

III. Social Studies

A. Geography

1. *Direction*—Up the river; down the river; across the river; this side of the river; the other side of the river; up track; down track; left track; right track.
2. *Places*—East Stroudsburg; Stroudsburg; Water Gap; Portland; Delaware; Pennsylvania; New Jersey; Scranton; New York; Philadelphia; Delaware River.
3. *Forces and ways of overcoming them*—

Distance
Mountains
Rivers
Ravines
Forests
Heat and cold
Rain and ice on rails
Snow
Darkness
Trains
Natural passes, grades, tunnels
Bridges, tunnels
Trestles
Clearings
Ends of rails have small space to allow expansion and contraction
Sand
Plows
Head and tail lights
Long tracks
Fog
Signals
Flares and whistles

B. History

1. *Long, long, ago.* — *Now*
   a. Travel—Foot — Train
      Horseback — Automobile
      Carriage — Bus
      Stagecoach — Airplane
   b. Food—Raised in garden — Brought long distance
      Trade with neighbors — by train, truck
   c. Clothing—Made at home — "
   d. Toys—Made at home — "
   e. Furniture, etc.—Made at home — "
   f. Fuel—Wood found near by — Coal, oil, etc. brought by train, truck.
2. *Development of Railroad*—shown by pictures and books listed.

C. Civics

Some appreciation of dependence of the community upon the railroad.
Some appreciation of work of engineer, conductor, brakeman, track walker, signal men, ticket agent, etc.
Some appreciation of their responsibility in helping keep station, cars, etc. clean.
Responsibility for their conduct on trips.
Responsibility for their part in construction work and during "Toy Excursions."

IV. Reading and Number

A. Reading—

Growing appreciation of books and pictures as sources of entertainment and information.

B. Number—

Counting number of cars, wheels, people, tickets, etc.
Measure—proportion in construction; distance on picture map (proportional); Proportional distance between stations in setting up unit.

The Citizens Conference on the Crisis in Education

"Our nation faces the acute responsibility of providing a right-of-way for the American child. In spite of our economic, social and governmental difficulties, our future citizens must be built up now. We may delay other problems, but we cannot delay the day-to-day care and instruction of our children.

"In the rigid governmental economies that are requisite everywhere we must not encroach upon the schools or reduce the opportunity of the child through the school to develop adequate citizenship. There is no safety for our republic without the education of our youth. That is the first charge upon all citizens and local governments."

With these words, President Herbert Hoover appropriately opened the Citizens Conference on the Crisis in Education which he had called together January 5–6 at Washington.

Seventy delegates and advisory experts represented the following organizations which accepted the invitation to participate in this conference: The American Council on Education; the American Farm Bureau Federation; American Federation of Labor; National Association of Manufacturers; and the National Grange.

Among other proposals approved by the Conference were:

The major wastes should be eliminated through the elimination of control and interference by politicans, of political appointments and of political corruption.

Local governments and local school districts should be reorganized and consolidated.

Administrative control of the schools must be centralized in the superintendent.

State administrative organization of education must be reorganized through the creation of a non-political and professional agency for the administration of the educational policies of the state.

The state must assume the responsibility within its means of assuring adequate public education to all local communities, irrespective of their financial condition.

The Conference was closed with a challenge by Secretary of the Interior Ray Lyman Wilbur: "If you are going to pay school teachers, you have got to get the money to pay them, and that money now is going to be sought for from a dozen sources. So that we must take an aggressive attitude for the schools if we are going to see our children through. This is not a matter of passing resolutions. It is a matter of fighting, and there is no better thing to fight for than the American school child, and I want to leave with you as you go that challenge. Fight through for these American school children. Fight the highways, fight the politicians, fight all the groups—it's worthwhile."

Progressive Education Association

Annual Conference—Chicago, Illinois

The Annual Conference of the Progressive Education Association will be held in Chicago, March 2–3–4, 1933. Mr. Carleton Washburne, Superintendent of the Winnetka Public Schools, has been appointed chairman of the conference. At the meeting of the general committee assisting Mr. Washburne, Miss Flora Cooke of the Francis W. Parker Schools of Chicago was elected Honorary Chairman.

A committee of thirty educators from the vicinity of Chicago met with Mr. Washburne and Mr. Redefer, Executive Secretary of the Progressive Education Association, to discuss plans for the conference. Uppermost in the minds of those who were assembled at this meeting were the difficult financial problems facing educators. In almost every suggestion from the general committee there was the definite demand that teachers and educators exert a more vigorous leadership in schools and communities and that they face honestly and sincerely the social and economic crisis which is seriously affecting the program of the schools.

President Frank E. Baker of the Milwaukee State Teachers College called for a courageous stand and pointed out that courage as well as intelligence is needed at this time. President H. P. Brown of Normal University expressed the need for a careful study of the social order and for the support of dynamic leaders. Mr. Matthew P. Gaffney of New Trier High School suggested a study of ways and means to challenge leadership in our various communities and remarked on the need for active participation in civic affairs.

The program may be obtained from the Progressive Education Association, 716 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

National Council of Childhood Education

CONVENTION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE, MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA

PARTICIPATING GROUPS

National Council of Kindergarten-Primary Supervisors and Training Teachers
Chairman, Julia Wade Abbot, President, Association for Childhood Education, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

National Association for Nursery Education
President, George D. Stoddard, Director, Iowa Child Welfare Research Station, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa

FIRST SESSION

Joint Meeting With the Department of Superintendence

Monday, February 27, 1933, 2:00 P.M.

Presiding, George D. Stoddard, Director, Iowa Child Welfare Research Station, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa

Shaping Character and Personality

Which Shall It Be—Character Education or Mental Hygiene?
Harold H. Anderson, Assistant Professor of Psychology, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa

What Kind of Character Are We Trying to Develop?
Charles E. Germane, Professor of Education, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri

Character Education Begins At Home
John E. Anderson, Director, Institute of Child Welfare, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota

Can Childhood Education Be Socially Realistic?
Frederick L. Redefer, Executive Secretary, Progressive Education Association, Washington, D. C.

Discussion of Papers and a Look to the Future
Edwin D. Starbuck, Professor of Philosophy, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, California

Open Forum

SECOND SESSION

Luncheon Meeting

Wednesday, March 1, 12:15 P.M., West Ballroom, The Curtis Hotel

Presiding: Julia Wade Abbot, President, Association for Childhood Education

Character Education

The Approach to Character Education
A. L. Threlkeld, Superintendent of Schools, Denver, Colorado

What Is Important in Early Childhood Education?
Burton P. Fowler, Head Master, Tower Hill School, Wilmington, Delaware

Re-Education in Personality Development
W. E. Blatz, Director of St. George's School for Child Study, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada

Limitations of the Scientific Method in Character Education.
M. E. Haggerty, Dean of University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota

Shall We Measure, Grade, and Report Character Traits?
Goodwin Watson, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York

NEWS FROM HEADQUARTERS

MARY E. LEEPER

KINDERGARTENS IN WORCESTER TO CONTINUE

Recently citizens of Worcester, Massachusetts, found from the headlines of their papers that the Mayor demanded a 30% reduction in the school budget which would probably necessitate the closing of the kindergartens. Did the parents and teachers of Worcester accept the situation? They did not! First they ask, "What emergency in the finances of the city demands this drastic cut of 30% in the school budget which may close the kindergartens?" Quickly competent groups were organized for the investigation of the financial condition of the city. The result was a report stating that no such emergency measures were deemed necessary. Mass meetings were held. Petitions were circulated, signed and taken to the Mayor with the result that within a week the Mayor appeared before the School Committee to say, "The kindergarten will not be eliminated and a 15% cut will take care of the situation." Moral: It pays to have the courage to investigate.

READING EMPHASIS IN SCHOOL ACTIVITIES

This first A.C.E. Bulletin for the year was sent early in January to all contributing members and to the president and secretary of each A.C.E. Branch.

The title of the Bulletin, *Reading Emphasis in School Activities*, and the fact that it is edited by Marjorie Hardy, foretell for it an eager welcome and a careful reading. Such chapter headings as: Factors Influencing Progress in Learning to Read, The Selection of Books for the Child Five to Eight Years. The Importance of Literature in the Reading Program, will make a special appeal to teachers looking for help with their reading problems, while those who attended the Washington A.C.E. Convention will be glad to find here summaries of the discussions on reading and literature that were presented in the special conference groups of the Convention.

Non-members of the Association may secure this Bulletin from the Association for Childhood Education, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest, Washington, D. C. Price $.35.

PACIFIC COAST NURSERY SCHOOL ASSOCIATION

The report received by Headquarters of the annual conference of the Pacific Coast Nursery School Association held at the University of California in November is another indication of the practical and stimulating help that is to be found when a group of people of identical aims meet together for mutual inspiration. Particular emphasis was laid upon the practical application, to every-day teaching, of the various findings and principles discussed.

The newly elected President of the Association is Miss Barbara Greenwood, University of California at Los Angeles.

MERGER IN SOUTH DAKOTA

An event of more than usual interest to the South Dakota teachers of early childhood is the merging of the South Dakota Association for Childhood Education, organized two years ago, and the Kindergarten-Primary Department of the S.D.E.A. which held its 50th annual convention at Rapid City, November 20–23. Professional groups represented in the new organization include teachers and directors of pre-school, kindergarten, first, second, and third grades, supervisors and training teachers in the field of childhood education. This group of educators are confident that the merger will provide more friendly contacts, promote a better understanding of the problems of each grade level by other grade levels, and bring about closer cooperation with administrative and supervisory agencies in the solution of problems relating to the nursery-kindergarten-primary field. The group, through its Kindergarten-Primary department officers, expressed its desire to the Executive Council of the S.D.E.A. to continue its relationship with that body as a department but under the new name. The nominating committees of the two merging organizations met jointly and agreed upon the candidates presented. The president is Maude Flanagan, Mitchell, South Dakota.

BOOK REVIEWS

Editor, ALICE TEMPLE

Methods in the elementary school.—The number and content of courses in methods found in the curriculums of teachers colleges during the last two decades have shown decided changes. At one time there was a general course in methods; later the general course was supplemented by one or more special methods courses; today we see a general course followed by as many specialized courses as there are subjects to be taught by the prospective teacher. The past twenty years have also seen many "new" methods proposed. More recently there has appeared a group of "progressives" who assert, in effect, that no procedure should be countenanced that is not based on an "activity," "child-centered" program, as if every good teacher had not always recognized that the principle of self-activity is a *law* of learning and that the school existed for the pupils. The changes in the number of courses and in the different methods have been due in large part to the nature of the available textbooks. A new publication[1] has recently appeared that may serve to bring about a more balanced point of view in relation to both the number and content of courses in methods.

The volume is written as "a text for a course in general methods. Part I is devoted to the techniques applicable to all teaching procedures; Part II treats explicitly the teaching of several elementary-school subjects. (Reading, Language, Social Studies, Arithmetic, Handwriting, and the Arts.)" (p. 22.) Part II also contains chapters on "The Planning of Teaching" and "Extra-Instructional Activities of Teachers." The position of the authors is "in agreement with the prevailing practice" (p. 19) "in teachers colleges and departments of education (in which they) require a course in general methods which is supplemented later by one or more special methods courses." (p. 18.) Their attitude toward the relation of methods of teaching to the various educational levels is expressed in the following terms: "Different curricula have been formulated for the preparation of teachers for the several educational levels. This practice suggests differences in instructional procedures at the various educational levels. There are differences; but whether we consider teaching in the elementary school, in the high school, or in the university, the fundamental principles of learning and teaching are the same . . . Consequently, a treatise on methods of teaching in the elementary school will include the same fundamental principles as are treated in a text designed for prospective high-school teachers." (p. 20.)

The authors' point of view toward the "progressive movement" in education is clearly defined in the following quotations: "In this volume . . . we have endeavored to maintain a progressive point of view, and at the same time to avoid advocating practices that would appear radical to the average teacher or supervisor." (p. v.) "The present writers desire to be progressive but not radical. They accept as fundamental the principle that the pupil learns only as the result of participating in appropriate learning activities. They believe that under sympathetic guidance and encouragement the attempts of a pupil to realize his purposes or to satisfy his needs constitute highly desirable learning activities." (p. 3.) "The activity includes mental and emotional responses as well as manual expressions. It is unfortunate that some writers have stressed only the manual phases of such work . . . . Intellectual and emotional activities are still more important, even though they are less tangible and more difficult to secure." (pp. 11, 12.)

The book should contribute to a needed reorganization of methods courses that will result in less time being spent on the learning of "recipes" for teaching. It should also serve to provide a sane point of view toward the present pronouncements of some of the "progressives."

The authors state that they desire to be progressive. They also state that "In the preparation of this book the writers have endeavored to utilize the results of scientific investigations in so far as they pertain to the topics under consideration, but they are fully aware that the discussions are primarily the results of their own observation and thinking." (p. 16.)

That they have attained their objectives as defined is readily admitted. But the reviewer

[1] Walter S. Monroe and Ruth Streitz, *Directing Learning in the Elementary School*. Garden City: Doubleday, Doran & Company, Inc., 1932. Pp. ix + 480.

feels that the authors could have been *really* progressive had they taken the scientific point of view as the sole basis for developing a book on methods. As it stands, the book is too largely another "arm-chair" contribution. It might have been a pioneer—a book based wholly on scientific studies that have been made in the classroom. The suggested procedure would have done much to contribute to their philosophy as the reviewer senses it—the prospective teacher, becoming familiar with the general principles of method, applicable at all levels, and applying them in a few specific cases under the guidance of a good teacher of methods, should be able to solve teaching situations as they arise.

CLEM O. THOMPSON
University of Chicago

A demonstration school reports progress.—Two ideas which have been put in practice more and more generally during the past five years are well presented in a new volume from the National College of Education's *Curriculum Records of the Children's School.*[1]

The first of these ideas is that of continuity. The beginnings of all intermediate grade subject matter are found in the activities in the nursery school, the kindergarten, and the first grade. What is learned there is built upon in subsequent grades through the activities and interest of the older children. The development of habits to help children get along with others, to care for their own personal needs, and to aid their learnings is consistently seen in the activities reported from grade to grade for the children of different age levels. The same is true in planning the day's program and in keeping records of progress.

The second idea is that of teaching through units of work the skills and the information which were formerly taught in isolated doses.

For the classroom teacher the reports of units of work offer a guide in how to go about this type of teaching. They show how the present activities are closely tied to everything that has gone before in the children's home, school, and community life. They show how to reach out for cooperation not only from other classes within the school, but to agencies within the community, and to specialists on the school staff for different types of material and information.

For the supervisor, the book offers excellent illustrative material on curriculum construction and guidance in classroom management. In terms of experiences in the *Children's School*, such questions are answered as "What are the subjects most interesting to children at different age levels, and are, at the same time, replete with opportunities for developing skill and information?" "How different are the plans of work for children in the sixth grade from those in the first and second?" "What type of a program is found best fitted for kindergarten children and for the fifth grade children?" "What is there about the time program in the fifth grade that is just as well for me, a kindergarten teacher, to know?" "How does the day start in a nursery school?" "What kinds of records can the children keep of their own work?" "How valuable are records of the development of beginning reading in a first grade?" "What special need is there for both individual and class records in the different grades?"

A bibliography for teachers, though not annotated, is classified under headings of curriculum and general management, teaching of social studies, teaching of science, reading and literature, English composition, spelling, handwriting, and other subjects of the curriculum; under nursery school education, child development and character education. Illustrations vitalize many of the descriptions of classroom work.

The book is offered "to help other schools which are starting the adventure of creative curriculum making." It is not a prescription for school procedure to be followed blindly. It challenges the thinking of the reader and should leave her in the mood to analyze her present classroom work and to anticipate a wealth of other activities which may possibly be well adapted to the children with which she is now working.

MARY DABNEY DAVIS
Washington, D.C.

The educational laboratory at Winnetka.—The experiment in individual instruction which has been going on in the Winnetka Illinois public schools for a period of twelve or more years has attracted the attention of teachers all over the country. Many articles have been published and lectures given by Superintendent Washburne describing the general plan or some phase of it. A recent book[1] brings to-

[1] Staff of the National College of Education, *Curriculum Records of the Children's School*. Evanston, Illinois: Bureau of Publications, National College of Education. 1932. Pp. 562.

[1] Carleton Washburne. *Adjusting the School to the Child*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company, 1932. Pp. xvi+189.

gether and arranges some of the articles in such form as to give a fairly comprehensive picture of the nature and results of the experiment.

In the opening chapter, "Basic Principles of Individualizing School Work," we find the following statement. "Those subjects which we want each child to master must be 'individualized'—there is no other effective way of getting widely differing children to attain a common standard. But those subjects in which children may legitimately differ, or where we want to capitalize on their differences, may be socialized—we classify these as 'group and creative activities.'" (p. 2.) Seven of the chapters which follow are devoted to explaining the techniques of individual instruction in those subjects which are to be mastered—arithmetic, reading, spelling, English and social studies. One readily admits the need for mastery of the tool subjects—the social skills—but why the social studies? Mr. Washburne and his staff have found two definite objectives here. "One is that children shall be familiar with those persons, places, and events—with those facts in a word—to which allusion is so commonly made in literature and conversation that the child would be unable to read and talk intelligently if he knew nothing of them; and second, that a child shall attain knowledge of those facts which will shed direct light upon the problems which he will probably have to face as a citizen" (p. 107). Just what these facts are has been determined, for the elementary grades of Winnetka, by an investigation conducted by the Winnetka teacher's seminar.

One chapter gives an account of the group and creative activities which are valued as highly in this system as the individualized activities although absolutely distinct from them. Other topics dealt with in the book are the application of mental hygiene to behavior problems, the administration of an individualized school, and ways of convincing the community of the value of the methods used in the schools.

Anyone interested in becoming intelligent about what is going on in the Winnetka schools should read this book.

ALICE TEMPLE

Manuscript writing.—First grade teachers in schools where manuscript writing is taught will find much of interest in "My First Writing Book"[1] and the manual which accompanies it. The book itself contains twenty-five different topics or "units" of interest to young children, all fully illustrated. Among them are such attractive titles as "My New Clothes," "My Pets," "We go Traveling," "At the Zoo." The drawings are accompanied in each case by the name of the object in large manuscript writing. Thus the 250 different words which the book contains may be identified by the children by means of the illustrations. The authors suggest that a copy of each book be in the hands of the children from the beginning and that they "be encouraged to examine their books, become acquainted with the contents, enjoy the pictures and talk to the teacher about anything that they find of interest." They will read it and use it to locate words for some time before using it for writing. There is one blank space after each word or sentence in which the child may write. Blank pages are provided for other material which it may be desirable for the children to record such as an interesting experience, a poem written by a child or the group, a record etc.

The book as a whole is very attractive and will make strong appeal to first-grade children. The manual contains simple, direct and valuable suggestions for the teacher of manuscript writing together with directions for using the book.

ALICE TEMPLE

More about Sally and Billy.—All primary teachers who are acquainted with Miss Hardy's many delightful books for young readers will welcome another. "Sally and Billy in Autumn,"[2] is a pre-primer, like "The Little Book." An unusually attractive picture and one or two short sentences fill each page. A new printing process, according to the publishers, has made possible the use of a much larger number of colors than heretofore. A similar little book for each of the other seasons is to follow this one. These little books will be enjoyed by all beginning readers who are fortunate enough to have access to them.

ALICE TEMPLE

[1] Jennie Wahlert and A. Leutheusser. *My First Writing Book*. Chicago: Laurel Book Company, 1932. Pp. 64. 25 cents.
[2] Marjorie Hardy. *Sally and Billy in Autumn*. Chicago: Wheeler Publishing Company. 1932. Pp. 48. $0.20.

AMONG THE MAGAZINES

Editor, ELLA RUTH BOYCE

The *New Era* in its November issue has, on its editorial page, the Outlook Tower, an interesting discussion of Psychology. Its initial statement is "The relationships existing between parent and child and between teacher and child are of fundamental importance, because they form the basis of all human relationships in society." The writer then goes on to show how inclined we all are to blame other agencies for our difficulties, when the fault really lies in human beings themselves, and only by making them over can we hope to better conditions. "To-day in the homes and the schools of the world, we are determining the attitudes, habits, human relationships and social adjustments of the next generation. On these will depend the society of to-morrow." The distinctive thing in the new school is not so much a new attitude toward children, since there has always been good in the attitude toward them, but the difference is that today "we can base our educational practices on definite scientific findings, the results of actual observation of children." It is psychology which has brought this about and yet in many places there is a mistrust of it. In England in particular, "perhaps, because the Britisher is reserved and resents the possibility of anyone knowing him too well." Particularly in the field of the psychology of freedom is there as yet considerable disagreement. "All modern psychologists urge that the child should be free to develop as an individual, but there is a great deal of disagreement as to what exactly we mean by freedom." Mental hygiene and its place in the home and the school are regarded by this writer as products of modern psychology of great value. The following statements give some of the results when it is applied. "The new type of school gives many opportunities for the children to co-operate in the general discipline, thus learning self-discipline." "We have come to realize that every child is an individual and that there is no greater crime than an attempt to standardize human nature by trying to fit the child to a school or a system." "The new psychology also teaches us that there must be changes in our examination system, and in the curriculum to allow for individual differences." Finally the writer tells of a psychological commission recently formed with Dr. Moodie of London as the chairman. This committee plans through courses, lectures, articles, and books to spread knowledge of the principles of development among people generally, to the end that not only psychology may remedy many ills we now have, but prevent their appearance, "so that we may, through wise handling of children, rear a loftier race."

Dr. Moodie has an article in this same journal on The Purposes of Child Study. He writes of its importance as follows, "Society was never less stable than at the present moment. In almost every direction rapid developments are taking place, and the child of today finds himself in an environment very different from that in which his parents were brought up. This is only one of the reasons why some study may well be given to children and why it is necessary for us to devote thought to their development." His paragraph headings are as follows—"Understanding Replaces Instinct, Giving The Child A Chance, The Whole Child, Temperament and Experience, Behavior Problems and The School, Knowledge Ousts Anxiety, and Nature Loves The Norm."

A supplementary department in this journal has the heading Parents and Children and prints this month under the title Success Through Play, a very good discussion by Mary M. Mactaggart of play. She writes of "Toys that Do," a descriptive phrase which is suggestive and shows how even very little children can begin to solve problems if they have the opportunity to do so. The third point she makes is the importance of learning to play with others, concluding with this statement, "The child who reaches the stage of playing actively, constructively and well has already gripped the beginning of a successful life. There are also printed here ten fine points on Play, some suggested books and a discussion of toys, all helpful material.

In *Educational Administration and Supervision* for October is printed Part I of a presentation of Preschool Education In Germany, written by Adele Menther. It is interesting to

see the two lines of development which followed Froebel's own work. Baronin von Marenholz-Buhlow, we are told, founded institutions which were formal, "placing special emphasis upon the strict use of Froebel's play material and system of developing the sense." On the other hand Froebel's niece Henrietta Breymann, afterwards Frau Schrader, placed the emphasis in her work, "upon giving the children what they lacked in the large towns, namely, life under natural conditions." The following seems to have a very modern note, "The children were given opportunities to be independent and considerate, to do creative and self-expressive work, to take an interest in the work for and with their group, to get experience and knowledge of the life around them, and to develop consciousness of their life and experiences. Although the organization of the house was centered around the interests of these children, the aims were (1) to give the young girls and young mothers who were taught there an idea of women's work and their special contribution to life; (2) to teach them how to take care of children intelligently and train them to do household work as one of their social duties; and (3) to provide them with a variety of interests and social activities." There was also a great deal of attention paid to health with a nurse to look after defects and monthly examinations by a physician—with clinical treatment when needed. Special attention was paid to nutrition. The article goes on to tell us what has been done since the war with the government taking some responsibility for the children. The law asserts that "Every German child has a right to be brought up to its mental, social and physical capacities." The regulations for kindergartens are given—one notes that there must be at least two rooms for every twenty children, and also a kitchen, bathroom, cloakroom, and isolation room, and that in other ways the standards are very high. The requirements for training teachers are also given and if all these regulations are carried out effectively it must be that the kindergarten is really once more finding itself on its native soil.

This same magazine prints A Survey Of Popular Plans For Instruction by Clay J. Daggett, and Florence A. Petersen. The plans discussed are The Morrison Plan, The Winnetka Plan, The Dalton Plan, The Pueblo Plan, The Batavia System, Multiple Track Plans, and The Platoon System. Each is presented under the following headings—History, Objectives Peculiar To This Plan, Requisites, Procedure, Advantages, and Disadvantages, with a Bibliography for each. This gives clear, direct pictures of these different administrative devices which will be valuable to any one wishing information on them.

In the *Educational Research Bulletin* of the College of Education of Ohio State University for November 9th, there is published an article by T. C. Holy on The Payment of Teachers' Salaries on a Twelve-Month Basis. This is a subject of vital interest to teachers and one that is being somewhat widely discussed now, so that this is timely information. He begins with a brief historical survey in which he ascribes the growth of the usual plan to the fact that formerly teacher turn-over was enormous. He cites the fact that schools often had as many as three teachers in one year. Originally too the school year was only 132 days. Teacher turnover is now rapidly decreasing and he gives as contributory factors, "Tenure provisions, salary schedules and retirement provisions, and election for permanent service after a probationary service." It is surprising to find that teachers have been paid on a twelve-month basis for many years in different cities, Boston topping the list with fifty years. He gives as reasons for the desirability of this arrangement several facts—first, the unfair comparison now made so frequently between the monthly salary of teachers and that in other positions, which makes it appear that teachers are more highly paid than they really are. In places where it is in effect it has so far not resulted in the teachers being asked to give more service. This seems a rather unimportant point, since the habit of long vacations does not seem to be really a necessary one for health or a high type of service. Finally he concludes, "The writer is firmly convinced that the insertion of a clause in the teacher's contract to the effect that he will be paid in twelve equal monthly installments is highly desirable both from the social and financial points of view."

The same journal prints Classroom Problems of Recent Teaching Graduates by R. H. Eliassen. This is a report of an investigation among 602 graduates of Ohio State University, 120 men and 482 women to find out the problems most frequently encountered in beginning teaching. Some other studies made along similar lines are briefly reviewed and then the results of this study given under seventeen headings. Stimulation of interest heads the list with discipline or control of pupils next, provisions for individual differences third, and adjustment of teacher to classroom situations fourth. These

interesting comments are made, "In comparing the problems for the men and the women, considerable agreement was found. Men had less trouble with discipline, and a smaller percentage indicated motivation as a problem. Both sexes were in agreement as to the ranking of the first four problems. In the other thirteen problems there were some variations. Striking differences were noted in getting pupils to use good English. For the men the stress upon the correct use of the mother tongue was apparently not a difficult task, or else men teachers were less conscientious about correcting their students in this respect. The percentages for the men and women were also at variance with respect to securing the co-operation of parents and other teachers. The men had more trouble in this respect than did the women." The author's conclusion is that "The findings as reported in this study have given a general picture of the problems that confront teaching graduates. Careful preparation in the light of such data should enable young teachers to cope more successfully with problems that will arise in their first teaching experience."

In *Educational Method* for November, Bess Goodykoontz, Assistant United States Commissioner of Education writes on Units of Work and The Individual. This is a very fine analysis of different types of units of work showing what the effect is on the individual pupil. The problem is carefully presented with many thought-provoking questions. The first type discussed is "the unit of work initiated or, more likely, accepted whole-heartedly by the class. It may center on any one of many different sorts of problems, what characterizes it is that the class acts almost as an individual." The article shows what may happen to the individual child both of actual value and of little use. The next type discussed is one in which the class initiates a new study, analyzes the problems, decides what has to be done, and then distributes the responsibility to individual members of the class for the actual solution of the problems. How such a unit of work actually may proceed is shown with, again, both its good and bad possible results indicated. The third type presented is one in which "the individual attacks a unit of work as a personal responsibility." This is the exact opposite of the first type and it is also discussed in detail with its positive and negative aspects presented. The writer feels that "There is probably no possibility or desirability of agreeing upon the definition of a unit or even upon the elements which constitute one." But she thinks there are several points which may be summarized "as pertinent in considering the individual's place in the unit method." These are presented in question form as follows. "First, does the method in use develop ability to see problems, define them, and judge their relative merit?—Second, does the method develop the power of logical analysis? Does it increase ability to recognize 'steps in a process' and to discriminate between things that must be done to get the facts and things it would be pleasant to do?—Third, does the method develop honest scholarship, faithfulness in details, respect for exactness in contradistinction to desire to interest or entertain, or get through?"

In the same magazine, Mabel Simpson, Director of Elementary Grades and Kindergartens in Rochester, N.Y., writes on Building An Elementary School Curriculum. This is a description of work which has been going on for the past nine years. She tells how it has progressed until now "all elementary schools of the system are using the completely modified curriculum as a teaching guide in the Kindergarten and Grades I–VI inclusive." The four major objectives which have controlled the work have dealt "with experiences in learning in the fields of the Social Relationships, Health, Mastery of the Tools of Learning, and Appreciation of the Fine and Practical Arts." The field of the social relations supplies the core of the curriculum, centers of interest being established for each grade. These are listed—that for the kindergarten being, Home and School Interest, the Preprimary being Neighborhood Interest, First Grade B, Our City—A, Places near our City—the Farm, up to the Sixth Grade A where Our World Relationships Through Our Neighbors of the East and the West is given. Every course of study is organized in relation to five sections as follows—1. Suggested Activities; 2. Standards of Achievement; 3. Subject Matter Units; 4. Methods and Processes; 5. Reference and Source Material. A chart is reproduced showing Progressive Steps in the Growth of English from the kindergarten through the third grade.

RESEARCH ABSTRACTS

Editor, ELIZABETH MOORE MANWELL

How Shall Industrial Arts be Taught?—Many teachers of to-day have an honest doubt as to the wiser method for them to use. On the one hand they are intrigued by the attractiveness of progressive principles, as for example, "let the child learn by doing," "center the teaching around child-participation," and so forth. On the other hand they are hesitant to use the newer methods in fear that the child will not gain as much information as is expected within the time allotted. One of the weaknesses of the progressive method program is that it has not yet been able to get in black and white very much data to support its theories, which might allay the doubts of some teachers who are more conservative.

From Columbia University Teachers College Dr. Gunther[1] has published a study which attempts to supply data which is thus so needed. She has investigated the problem of the effect of the presence of manipulative participation on the learning and retention of facts in the field of elementary industrial arts.

The children studied were pupils enrolled in the third, fourth, fifth and sixth grades of five different schools, and the program was so arranged that there were an equal number of classes who were taught their industrial arts with and without opportunity for manipulative participation. That is, all the children had four hours a week for four weeks in industrial arts while this study was being carried on. The teaching methods were much the same for all, except for this one factor; with half the subjects the children were not allowed to carry out any of the construction or experimentation which the teacher demonstrated in her teaching. During the study of the other half of the subjects each child was supplied with all the necessary materials for actual participation in the manipulation of the material. The units studied were wool, wheat, clay, soap, iron and paper.

Except for the factor of not letting all the groups during all of the lessons use the material constructively, all the teachers were encouraged to make their lessons as interesting as possible, and to use pictures, libraries, and actual correspondence with manufacturing concerns to make the situation as rich and as stimulating as they wished. In all the teaching the teachers were asked to make use of a simple outline for the lesson period to insure some uniformity.

Tests were given to measure the children's progress in learning, one test being given two weeks before the beginning of the experiment, another test immediately at the close of the month's work, and another test two months after the second, to find out how much of what had been learned could be recalled. Data were thus obtained upon 143 pairs of children.

The results of the study are clear and striking. On both the final test for learning and the later test for recall, in all the grades and in all of the units of study the children scored higher when they had been allowed to use the materials themselves rather than merely to watch the teacher and discuss the subject without themselves manipulating the material. Moreover there were fewer points of information lost in memory after two months with the groups which had used the material. In addition it was found that responses to test questions on related subject matter indicated that no neglect of subject matter accompanied the introduction of manipulative participation.

The difference in achievement between the participating and the non-participating groups was so great that statistically the chances are great that in another experiment under similar conditions the results would not be reversed.

The author concludes her study with a discussion of its educational implications. The organization of the work of the groups entering into manipulative participation was such as could be conducted in any class rooms without expensive materials. The teaching, as judged by the test results, did not require teachers especially trained in this technique.

Dr. Gunther further states that the results of the study show that mere manipulation is not enough. In the study of all the units the objective of these children was the understanding of the industrial processes,—the manipulative experiences were introduced to further

[1] Gunther, Theresa Charlotte. Manipulative Participation in the study of Elementary Industrial Arts. New York: Columbia University Teachers College Contributions to Education. No. 490, 1931. Pp. 58.

the development of clearer ideas and more appreciative insight into man's work.

She then points out that since the gains through manipulative participation were equally effective in all the grades studied (from three through six), there can be scant justification for the practice of many school systems where there is approval of the use of construction and manipulation in the primary grades, but no provision for them in the intermediate grades.

This study seems to the present writer to furnish some of the most clear-cut data backing up, in black and white, some claims of the progressive schools.

How do Twins Develop?—From the University of Minnesota Dr. Day[2] is publishing a most interesting study of the language development of twins.

Eighty pairs of twins were studied, twenty from each of four age levels, that is, at two, three, four, and five years. The children were carefully selected to give a representative sampling of the general population. The occupations of their fathers were classified and a proportion from each occupational level was chosen to accord with the general population of Minnesota. There were 5% in the professional class, 5% in the group of managerial occupations, 40% in the group of retailers, salesmen and skilled workmen, 24% in the group of semi-skilled workmen, and 16% in the group which included drivers and helpers. 10% of the children had fathers who were day laborers.

The method of observation was similar to a previous study of early language development by Dorothea McCarthy. The study was carried on in the homes of the children, the examiner carrying a suit case of toys to stimulate speech. The toys used were linenette picture books, a small automobile, a rubber ball, a pasteboard cat that made a noise when squeezed, a telephone with a bell, and a small music box. The examiner stayed in each home from one to two and one half hours, or until 50 consecutive verbal responses were recorded.

The results were analyzed and compared with the language development during these ages of singletons who have been observed by other well-known investigators.

The results are as follows:

The average length of the responses of the twins was definitely shorter than that of singletons. The difference was discernible at two years of age, but became increasingly greater with age until at the age of five years the length of responses for the twins was slightly below that of the three-year-old singletons.

When the average number of total words was computed it was found again that twins were at a disadvantage. At the age of five the twins had attained on an average 158 words, but the singletons had attained this number between the ages of thirty and thirty-six months. The singletons were also more advanced when the construction of their speech was analysed.

It was found that both in the analysis according to the structure of the sentence and in the word analysis twins showed the greatest retardation in those phases which make the greatest change with age.

In only two phases of the functional analysis of the children's speech did the twins show a superior development over the singletons,—in egocentric responses and in dramatic imitation. The author attributes this to the social advantage of the twin situation.

The twins of the upper three occupational classes were superior in all methods of analysis to twins of the three lower occupational classes. Girls were slightly superior to boys in their speech.

Singletons of the lower three occupational classes were superior in average length of response to the twins of the upper three occupational classes, and were often superior in other phases of the analysis.

In a discussion at the end of her paper Dr. Day points out that part of the reason for the slower progress of twins may lie in the fact that each child has the other for a model for a great proportion of the day, whereas in singletons the model more frequently heard is an older child or an adult. Moreover it is possible that the mere presence of a twin may provide certain satisfactions to a child so that he does not feel the need of conversation. Whatever the cause of the differences may be, however, the results of this study are exceedingly interesting.

[2] Day, Ella J. The Development of Language in Twins. I. A Comparison of Twins and Single Children. *Child Development*, Vol. III, No. 3, 1932, 179–199.